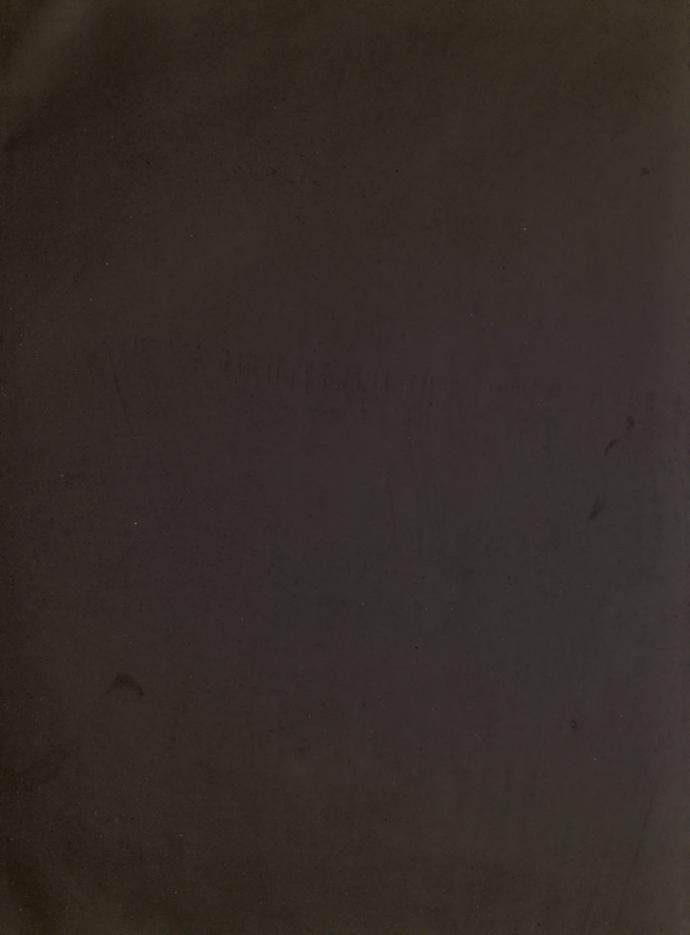
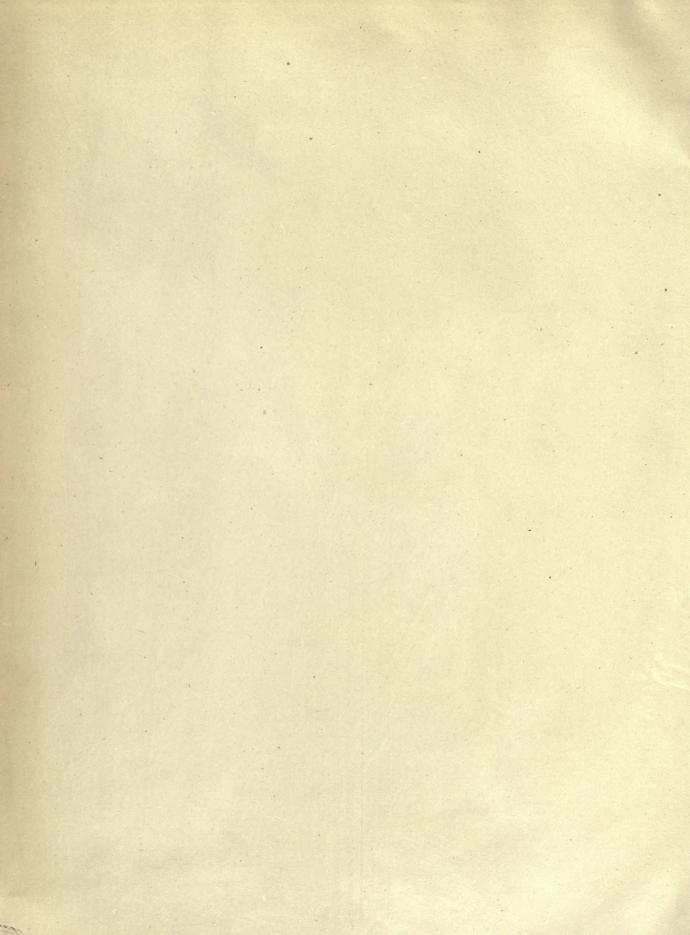
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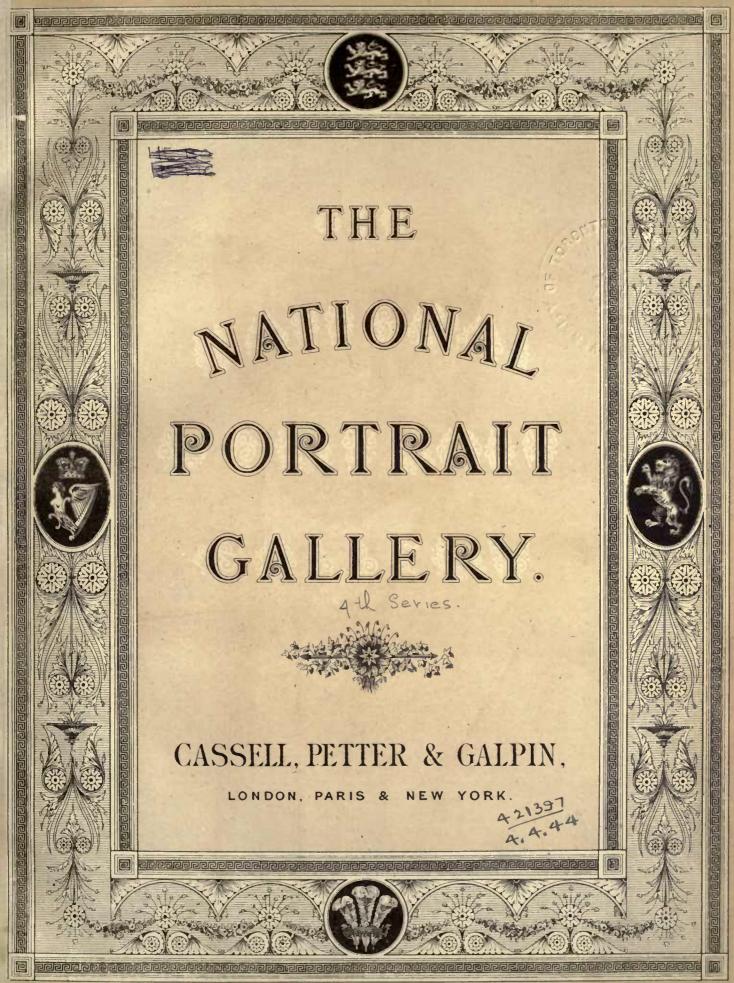








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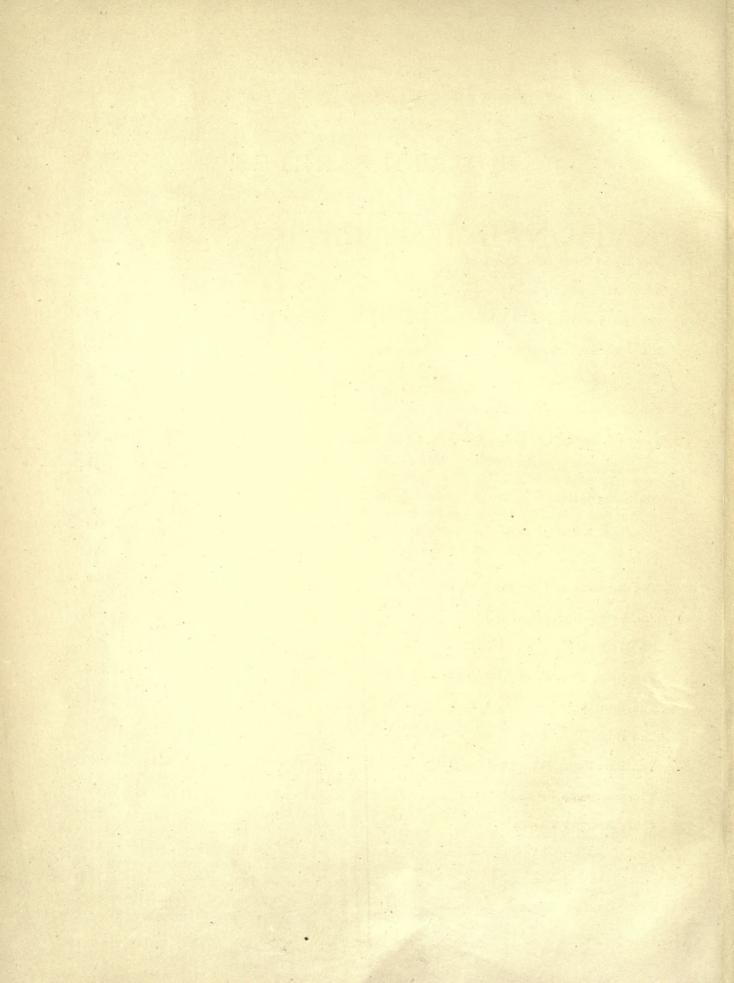


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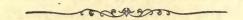
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NATIONAL PORTRAIT GALLERY.



THE RIGHT HON. LORD PENZANCE.

In his graphic review of the life of Julius Charles Hare, Dean Stanley draws attention to the peculiar characteristic of English social life, according to which some of the most celebrated Englishmen, instead of occupying prominent posts in Church or State, have to be hunted up in obscure country parsonages or in sequestered retreats of their own seeking. Over against that peculiarity may be placed another, namely, the difficulty of ascertaining the antecedents of our great men before they emerged into the full light of notoriety. Familiar in men's mouths as household words though their names have become, they point the moral, how little the world knows even of its very greatest men. The reticence which is said to be our characteristic as Englishmen, and by which our insularity makes itself felt in our every word and action, thus extends into the domain of biography; and it is only by some amount of assiduity that we are able to enter the penetralia where can be found the earlier incidents in the lives of our most distinguished countrymen.

This remark, which may be made generally of all except perhaps the very foremost rank of public men, who have in a measure notoriety thrust upon them by that fierce light which beats elsewhere than on the throne, is very specially applicable to the subject of our present memoir, whom we must describe for the time being as Mr. James Plaisted Wilde, the fourth son of Edward Archer Wilde, Esq., and nephew of the celebrated Serjeant Wilde, successively Solicitor and Attorney General, Chief Justice of the Common Pleas, and Lord Chancellor. Mr. Wilde may be said to have been a predestined lawyer. If there be, as Horace tells us, in horses and in cattle the excellence of their predecessors, it is likely that the same fact would hold good in the higher orders of creation; and though the lawyer, unlike the poet, may be made rather than born, there is something, after all, in the hereditary tradition of the family—so far, at all events, that, should Lord Truro's nephew select the legal profession as the pursuit of his life, he would at least have the incentive of his great kinsman's success to incite him to energy in that calling. He was born in London in the year 1816—another addition to that long muster-roll who, in arms, in arts, in song, have rendered the metropolis illustrious by claiming it as their birthplace; and his education was carried on at those ancient seats of learning—Winchester, and Trinity

College, Cambridge. Of young Wilde the Wykehamist (there is a pleasant alliteration in the title) we know little. This is a case in point as to the difficulty of gathering the early archives of our great men. What we do gather, however, is pleasant and characteristic enough in its way. The future champion in the forum won his first distinction in the cricket-field, and the name which now occupies so prominent a place in our current annals originally stood honoured in quite a different sphere. The printed records of Lord's Cricket-ground testify to the fact that Wilde was first bowler on the Winchester side against Eton and Harrow for two years. Who shall calculate the effect of that healthy physical exercise on the future success in a far higher arena? At Trinity, too, he pursued the even tenor of his way, graduating B.A. in 1838, and M.A. in 1842. Here again, besides the more strictly academical exercises in which our alumnus engaged, we find him still remaining true to the traditions of his Winchester pursuits. Now, however, he has (if one may so phrase it) changed the venue from the cricket-field to the tennis-court. Wilde of Trinity stands high in the roll of successful tennis-players at Cambridge. Incongruous as these details now appear, they may not have been without their effect on the physique of the future lawyer. Between these two dates, however, he had "eaten his dinners," and in the year 1839 was called to the Bar at the Inner Temple. Thus we see him fairly embarked in a profession wherein several members of his family had already become eminent, besides the one whose talents culminated in the woolsack. Of the various branches of his manifold subject Mr. Wilde turned his attention to the Common Law, and especially to that portion of it bearing on marine and mercantile matters. In the former department more particularly he soon rose to great eminence, and became an able adviser and sound advocate in all matters relating to shipping, in which branch of jurisprudence he soon attained to the rank of a leading authority. He went on the Northern Circuit; and in this sphere especially he would find, ever and anon, the opportunity for exercising his special knowledge; in the technicalities of which he at the same time gained a constantly accumulating store of information. Among the earlier and less distinguished honours which fell to his share may be mentioned his appointment, in 1840, as one of the counsel to the Customs and Excise. In fifteen years from this date, namely in 1855, he was appointed Queen's Counsel. He had at this time quite the lead on his circuit, and was well known as an apt and graceful speaker-in fact, as a forensic orator. A portrait published in the year 1860 appropriately represents him in the act of speaking, his left hand being extended as if emphasising his speech, his right hand grasping a bundle of legal documents, and his fine manly form displayed to the best advantage in the significant costume of his legal rank.

But that rank was already gravitating towards a higher sphere—indeed the portrait we have mentioned is described as that of "Mr. Baron Wilde, the new judge." Although, perhaps, he had not taken altogether a leading place in the general advocacy business at Nisi Prius, yet he retained the prestige so assiduously gained in the particular class of cases to which reference has already been made, and to which his attention had been directed while he was behind the Bar. If you want to gauge a man's powers, or appraise his reputation properly, listen to the vaticinations of his professional brethren, whether friends or enemies. Whenever a puisne judgeship fell vacant the Bar fixed on Wilde as the man for the appointment. By-and-by, the oracle of Westminster Hall was right. The opinions of his legal brethren as to his acquirements and status in his profession were endorsed by his being raised to the Bench of the Court of Exchequer in 1860, on which occasion he received the honour of knighthood. In February of the same year, too—in all respects an eventful one for Sir James—he had married Lady Mary

Pleydell Bouverie, youngest daughter of the third Earl of Radnor. In the year before his judgeship, 1859, he also added to his previous legal honours the appointment of Counsel to the Duehy of Laneaster.

Not only were the legal oracles right as to the fact of Sir James Wilde's appointment, but also as to the special fitness which prompted the prophecy. The brief period during which he exercised his judicial functions in the Court of Exchequer was still long enough to make it evident that the forensic seers were accurate in their estimate. In the familiar phraseology of his compeers he made what is termed "a good judge." The almost uninterrupted eareer of success was unfortunately broken by physical infirmity. It would have been well if, despite of added years and growing occupations, the man could have become for awhile a boy again, and taken his place once more by the stumps at Winchester, or in the Cambridge tennis-court. Such eminence as was compassed by Sir James Plaisted Wilde is not purchased without a price, and that paid by the subject of our memoir was a heavy one indeed, for it necessitated the resignation of his post, and the consequent suspension of a career of usefulness. Happily it was only for a time that his powers had thus to be held in abeyance; but the immediate cause was alarming enough. At the Summer Assizes of 1862, when he was junior judge on the Northern Circuit, Sir James's strength utterly gave way during the pressure of an exceptionally heavy calendar at Liverpool. He was obliged to leave a portion of the business unfinished; and in the spring of the following year he was also unable to go the Western Circuit, and Mr. Serjeant Shee was placed in the commission in his stead. These are the ominous warnings we all of us get in our different walks of life that the intellectual machinery is a delicate one, and reacts curiously on the physical frame. Though so young in his judicial life, Sir James Wilde was obliged to look forward to some otia tuta, and happily the legal profession, like the elerical, is not altogether lacking in such harbours of refuge, into which the storm-beaten vessel can put when the winds and waves have for the moment over-taxed it.

We spoke of Sir James Wilde's career as being one of almost unbroken success; and there was reason for the reservation. Cardinal Richelieu said rather too much when he told François that there was no such word as "fail" in the lexicon of youth destined for a glorious manhood. 'Tis not in mortals to command success at all points, however well deserved such success may be; and the exception about which we were thinking when we qualified our assertion as to Sir James Wilde's success bore reference to his Parliamentary, not to his professional, experiences. There were not wanting indications that Sir James might have employed his talents advantageously in the House of Commons. The very range of subjects which he made his métier seemed to suggest such a career of usefulness. But it was not to be. Twice did Sir James solicit the suffrages of a constituency without success. He contested the borough of Leicester in 1852, and that of Peterborough in 1859, but was not elected on either occasion. Considering the events of 1862-63, it is not perhaps to be regretted that he did not add to the duties already pressing upon his Atlantean shoulders the new and arduous ones of a legislator. There is, we are quite sure, a Providence which arranges all these matters for us better than we could for ourselves, and though it is naturally difficult for us to recognise this fact at the moment when our own plans are being crossed, yet we shall be greatly mistaken if the subject of our memoir has not seen, in the broad career of usefulness which has since opened out for him, indications that it was not altogether to be scored as a failure when the coy eitizens of Leicester and Peterborough bestowed their favours elsewhere.

At the time when the health of Sir James gave way during his occupancy of the Exchequer

Bench, there was a rumour that in the event of the retirement of Dr. Lushington, Baron Wilde would succeed to the less arduous and, considering his antecedents, the possibly more congenial office of Judge of the Court of Admiralty; but the haven of repose was destined to be elsewhere. On the death of Sir Cresswell Cresswell in 1863, he was selected to fill the vacant post of Judge of the Court of Probate and Judge Ordinary of the Divorce Court. It seems indeed a play upon words to speak of the onerous duties of such a position as partaking of the nature of repose or release from toil; but the pastimes of great minds are the toil of smaller ones. Not even in contrast with the calls made upon a Baron of the Exchequer Court can we thus characterise the new duties which devolved upon the newly-created judge. It is only in popular estimation that the duties of the Probate Court assume, in comparison with ordinary judicial functions, the aspect of anything like dignified ease. The duties of this Court are really, as persons in any way acquainted with such matters can testify, much heavier than those of any other court. It was rather the kind than the degree of duty that varied. When Sir James Wilde was appointed to the Probate Court, he received a remonstrance, signed by all the Registrars of the Court, to the effect that no one man could possibly discharge those duties; so much for the popular idea of otium cum dignitate! Sir Cresswell Cresswell was regarded as altogether an exceptional man—a kind of legal lusus natura. It was quite impossible we could e'er look upon his like again. They did not know that brave men lived before Agamemnon, and contemporary with him too. They had not read the quiet annals of the Winchester cricketing and the Cambridge tennis-playing. Not only did Sir James Wilde succeed in getting through more work than his predecessor had done, but he achieved what even Agamemnon had failed to do. In one year he entirely cleared the list of causes. In fact, the only relief in the exchange was, that the number of hours' sitting in a single day was less than at the Assizes. It is only with some reservation, then, and in proportion to the powers of the individual, that this post can in any way be thought of as constituting a haven of repose. Whatever the standard of its requirements, however, he answered them bravely, and for nine years he discharged the delicate and often disagreeable duties of that office with consummate ability, and in such a way as to command wide-spread respect.

In no capacity, perhaps, does the office of the judge so truly deserve the motto Pro aris et focis as in this particular one. The skeleton in the cupboard has to be brought out into the light of day; wounds which might have been borne in secret become well-nigh intolerable when exposed to the view, and probed with the sharp weapon of forensic scrutiny. With a Jeffreys on the Bench, the Court of Divorce might be made worse than the Inquisition itself. Under the skilful direction of Baron Wilde it became a resource—unhappily sometimes not to be avoided—where, while cruel wrongs were remedied, no place was given to prurient revelations, or to the infliction of unnecessary pain. As an instance of the delicate questions with which Sir James Wilde had to deal, we may mention that, towards the latter part of his tenure of office, and when he bore a higher title still than that by which he has yet been designated, it fell to his lot to deal with that now historic cause célèbre, the Mordaunt Divorce. Of the circumstances of this unhappy case it is not necessary here to speak. In the issue the jury found that the respondent was in such a condition of mental disorder as to be unfit and unable to answer the petition and to instruct her solicitor for her defence; and the order of the Judge Ordinary for staying further proceedings on that account was subsequently affirmed by a majority of the full court. Nothing could be more lucid than the opinion pronounced by the Judge Ordinary, with whom, though Chief Baron Kelly took a different view, agreed Mr. Justice

Keating. The following will be recognised at once as the outcome of the large and varied experience derived by the subject of our memoir from his own professional career, and the traditions of his honoured family. He said :- "The Courts of Law and Equity have always, though in different ways, enforced remedies arising out of contract, notwithstanding the insanity of the defendant; but," he very pertinently asked, "is it true that marriage is an ordinary contract? Surely it is something more. I may be excused if I dwell somewhat on this matter, because I conceive it lies at the very root of the question in discussion. Marriage is an institution. It confers a status on the parties to it, and upon the children that issue from it. Though entered into by individuals, it has a public character. It is the basis upon which the framework of civilised society is built; and, as such, is subject in all countries to general laws, which dictate and control its obligations and incidents, independently of the volition of those who enter upon it. Marriage, moreover, has features which belong to no other contract whatever, and notably these two-it cannot be reseinded, even by the consent of both parties to it, and it is commonly contracted under the sanction of a religious ceremony." Again, protesting warmly, and not without reference to his own antecedent experiences, against marriage being placed "on a level with a contract for the sale of goods or the hire of a ship," the judge added—"When the Court, therefore, is asked to deal with this question of insanity as Courts of Law would deal with a case of ordinary contract, the answer is, that marriage is not an ordinary contract. When the analogy of legal remedies in other cases of contract is put forward for adoption, the answer is, that the analogy does not exist." It would be difficult, perhaps, for the inductive logician to find a fitter instance of the dangers besetting an argument from mere analogy than this singularly clear and lucid exposition of the law in the painful case under consideration. Referring to a similar case decided by his predecessor, the judge made this graceful allusion to the late Sir Cresswell Cresswell:-"With the exception of the case Bowden v. Bowden, this is the first attempt in this Court to make an insane wife responsible in a suit for divorce. The judgment in that case was not an elaborate one; but no one who reveres the sound legal capacity of my predecessor in this Court as it deserves to be revered, can fail to attribute great weight to his decision. It is in entire conformity with the judgment now under review. In the Ecclesiastical Court no case has been cited in which so much as a contrary dictum is to be found; and on the only occasion when the matter was mooted the judge's notes show an opinion in conformity with that of Sir Cresswell Cresswell." In accordance with the judgment of the majority of the Court, the order of the Judge Ordinary was affirmed, and the appeal dismissed with costs.

In the year 1864 Baron Wilde was sworn a member of the Privy Council; and in 1869 he was elevated to the peerage as Baron Penzance, of Penzance, in the county of Cornwall; the duties of the Divorce Court continuing to be discharged by him until the year 1872, when he retired, with a pension of £3,500 a year.

In the same year which saw Sir James Wilde—for so we may perhaps be permitted still to call him in retrospect—sworn of the Privy Council, he took a prominent part in the proceedings of the National Association for the Promotion of Social Science, which met at York. He delivered an address on "Jurisprudence, and the Amendment of the Law." The exordium of that address exemplifies at once his powers as an orator, and his singular clearness and capacity as a legal reformer:—"The 7th of February, 1828," he commenced, "was a memorable day in the annals of law reform. Then it was that the greatest orator of his age delivered his celebrated oration in the House of Commons, and laid open the sweeping changes which our law required. From that moment an impulse was given which has not ceased to be felt. Interest was aroused, indignation

excited for the errors of the past, and a basis laid on which to build fair hopes of the future. Since that time the progress of law reform has been unceasing, though gradual." His plea for legal reform was enforced by very amusing instances. He said:-"It is not long since a great peer was accused of shooting at a fellow-subject in a duel, and acquitted because it was not made to appear beyond doubt that his Christian name was Harvey Garnett Phipps as charged, and not Harvey only, to which the proof extended. Nor have many years passed since a great demagogue conspired, if he did not levy war, against the Queen, and went unpunished after conviction, because the highest tribunal in the land decided in accordance with our legal system that the proceedings were faulty in form. And yet our own generation looked on without outcry, and accepted these results without indignation. To all those," he concluded, "who would carnestly lay their hand to the task of law reform, I would counsel the necessary boldness to grapple with this evil. speak not of that ignoble boldness which is assumed to challenge the admiration of the multitude, and play the part of superior wisdom in the eyes of the ignorant by sweeping denunciations of that to which others bow; nor of that audacity which is the spurious offspring of veneration, chafing under the reverence of others, and casting off its own in a spirit of defiance; nor of that begotten of idleness, and shallowness, and sloth, which feels the wrongs of a system whose true defects it takes not the pains to discover, and flies out into a general condemnation. But I mean that boldness which is born of the firm conviction that whatever is contrary to common sense and natural justice ought also to be contrary to law; the boldness which fears not to depart from the past to render homage to the present; which acknowledges that the law is made for man, and not man for the law, and which marches straight to its object, preferring simplicity with some defects to the perfection at which complexity aims, but rarely reaches." It would probably be difficult to find a finer climax than this; and the modifications of the law courts during late years can scarcely fail to strike the reader's mind as a step in the direction pointed out by Lord His lordship is, it should be mentioned, a member of the Commission for the Digest of the Law, and in this very title there seems to be involved a fulfilment of the quasi-prophetic utterances made at York in the year 1864.

Among the great constitutional questions which have from time to time occupied his lordship's attention, may be mentioned the fundamental one which touches the judicial character of the Upper House. Some years ago Lord Penzance resisted, in his own strenuous way, the attempt to abolish the judicial functions of the House of Lords, and in this attempt he succeeded.

There is, perhaps, nothing more interesting than the knowledge of how our great men pass those rare hours of leisure which fall to their share. A certain Roman emperor, not too favourably known to fame, amused himself with the intellectual pursuit of killing flies. Happily such useless vivisection is no longer in fashion. Another of our great men fells trees when he is not writing books on Homer and the Homeric Age. These are the pastimes adopted by our Agamemnous out of harness. What, think we, is that affected by Lord Penzance? To cricket and tennis has succeeded natural science. In the study of chemistry his lordship finds his chief relaxation. From the law court to the laboratory might seem to some of us only an exchange of toil; but, as we have already said, rest is rather a relative than an absolute term. It depends on the character of the mind in what it will find repose. We are quite certain there would be no relief to Lord Penzance in the imperial pursuit of impaling flies!

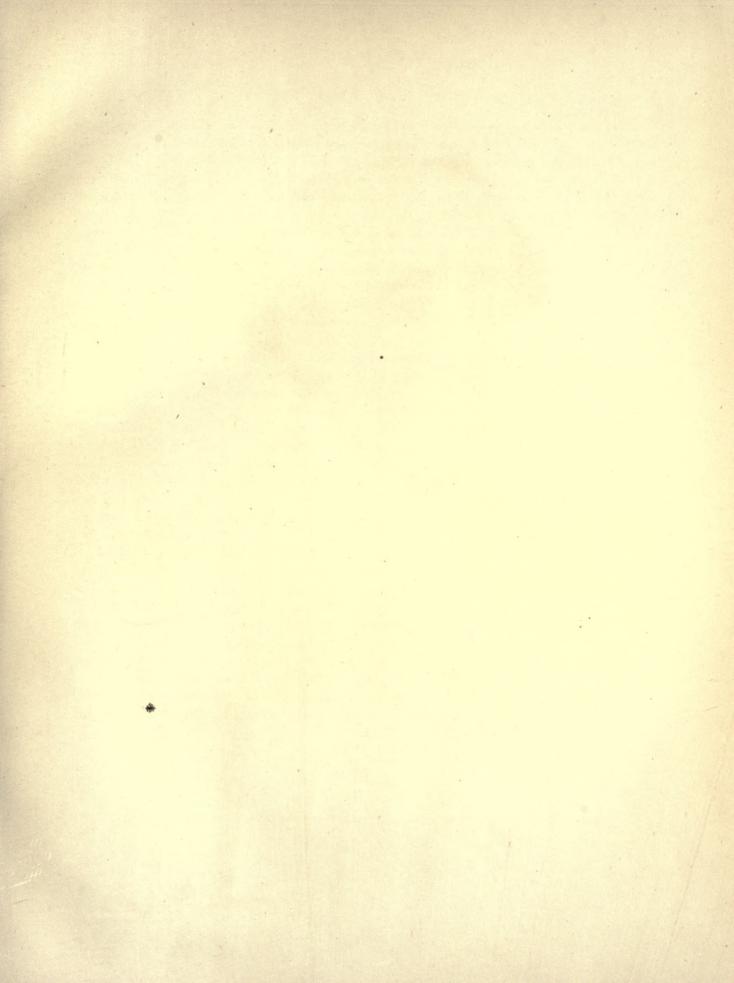
We now come to the exciting epoch of the Public Worship Regulation Act, with the carrying out of which the name of Lord Penzance will hereafter be indissolubly associated. This celebrated measure for putting down Ritualism belongs to the year 1874, and few subjects in modern times

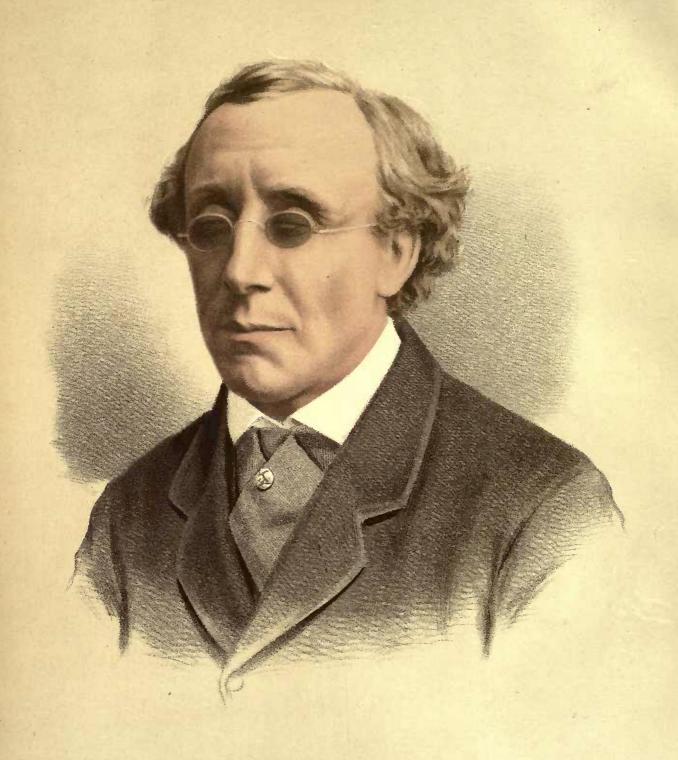
have given rise to more aerimonious difference of opinion. Over the struggle of the Bill in the House of Lords it is not necessary to go, nor have we space to dwell upon its varied fortunes when it entered the still more stormy arena of the Lower Chamber. Mr. Gladstone, whose famous Six Resolutions are now matters of history, spoke plain unvarnished truth when he said there never was a proposal on which there was greater diversity of opinion. He took his stand, he said, upon the broad ground that a certain amount of liberty has been permitted in the congregations of the Church of England. To this Mr. Disraeli replied, in some of his most telling sentences. "What I do object to," he said, "is the mass in masquerade. To the solemn ceremonies of our Roman Catholic friends I am prepared to extend that reverence which my mind and conscience always give to religious ceremonies sincerely believed in; but the false position in which we have been placed by, I believe, a small but powerful and well-organised body of those who call themselves English clergymen in copying these ceremonies, is one which the country thinks intolerable, and of which we ought to rid ourselves." Eventually Mr. Gladstone made his surrender of the Six Resolutions, and the Bill was read a third time in the House of Commons in the month of August. Mr. Disraeli then announced that Lord Penzance had undertaken the office of the new ecclesiastical judgeship. The Times, in a leading article, speaks of Lord Penzance's public spirit having, by the acceptance of this post, involved him in an act of "self-immolation." The technicalities of Lord Penzance's appointment having given rise to some difference of opinion, a return was made to the House of Lords, on the metion of Lord Limerick, which rendered the matter tolerably clear—the complications of ecclesiastical matters never allow us altogether to dispense with the qualifying adverb. Lord Penzance was in the first instance appointed under the Act to be "a Judge of the Previncial Courts of Canterbury and York." This appointment could scarcely have been more perfect in detail, having been made by the two archbishops, with the approval of Her Majesty. It was provided in the Act, too, that on the next avoidance of the Dean of Arches of Canterbury and Official Principal of the Chancery Court of York, the new judge should succeed to these offices. The resignation of these two efficials led to the absorption of their office into that held by Lord Penzanee; so that it would be difficult to imagine a position more distinctly representative of the Established Church of England than that which it became the fashion with a few dissatisfied clergymen to call in question.

Some excellent comments on Lord Penzance's tenure of this most difficult office occurred in the same leading article in the Times which characterised his acceptance as an act of self-sacrifice, and were no doubt present to the writer's mind when he adopted so startling a form of speech. He says:—"Lord Penzance commenced his duties in a position which is almost unknown to our judges—that of distrust and disrespect towards his office. It required the exercise of no little wisdom and good temper to set on foot, as it were, a jurisdiction thus discredited. The rebellion which had been threatened actually broke out in the foolish proceedings at Hatcham, and Lord Penzance was compelled to inflict civil penalties for the contempt of his Court. But the grounds on which this rebellion was based and the temper with which it was met resulted entirely to the Lord Penzance exercised his powers with decision, but with conspicuous moderation, abstaining from pronouncing any condemnation in respect of points under appeal, and inflicting no more severe penalty than was absolutely necessary for the purpose of enforcing the law. He also took occasion from time to time to explain the position he occupied and the nature of the jurisdiction he exercised, in a manner to disarm opposition from all but fanatics. conduct of the Court, in short, under the new mode of procedure established by the Public Worship Act, has been exactly what was needed to establish its authority and to allay prejudice."

The new judgeship was certainly not an instance of those otia tuta about which we have spoken; and the mode in which Lord Penzance has handled the difficult questions that have come before him, if it does not argue rejuvenescence, certainly does away with all idea of senility. The Bench at Lambeth has been no bed of roses. The first crucial case, exceptional as the typical one alluded to in the Divorce Court itself, was the Folkestone Ritual Case. In delivering his judgment thereupon, Lord Penzance condescended to utter something in the shape of an apologia. said:—"Some misconception, I fear, exists as to the functions, powers, and duties of this Court; some also with regard to the source of its jurisdiction. It is not well that this should be so; for those who, however unadvisedly, question the authority or jurisdiction of a Court can hardly be expected to yield to its decrees that readiness of obedience in which the true force of all tribunals resides. I think it, therefore, not out of place that, before proceeding to the details of the case before me, I should try to set in their true light some matters that have been by some unwittingly but grievously distorted. . . . It has been said, and I fear widely accepted, that this Court is a new Court; that its authority is independent of the Church; that the Bishops' Courts, which ought properly to entertain such questions as those now before me, have been by Parliament suppressed, and that a lay tribunal has been set up in their place, to sit in judgment not only upon ritual, but on soundness of doctrine and the mysteries of religion. . . . I am no further concerned," his lordship added, after dealing with the other objections, "with the remaining suggestion that a lay tribunal has been set up to deal with doctrine as well as ritual, than to affirm that in all matters of doctrine this Court has now precisely the same jurisdiction, and no more than it had before the statute was passed—nothing has been added, and nothing taken away." The result was that the judgment of the Court was on all the charges in favour of the complainants against the ritualistic practices of Mr. Ridsdale, and the respondent had to pay the cost of the proceedings. It may be added that-except with respect to two points on which the original evidence was not clear—this judgment was subsequently confirmed by the Privy Council.

Could we feel it necessary to assume the judicial office ourselves, and pronounce an opinion on the facts detailed above, we should say that the great requisites for the office up to the assumption of which we have traced Lord Penzance are temper and tact, pre-supposing always, of course, the requisite amount of legal knowledge. It is indeed one thing to deal with marine contracts, and another with the significance of Holy Orders; one matter to settle quarrels between an ill-assorted couple, and another to restrain the zeal of an ardent ecclesiastic. But Lord Penzance had an excellent schooling for the later in the earlier duties of his career; and the leader of the Northern Circuit, the Exchequer Baron, and the Judge of the Court of Probate and Divorce developed very naturally, and very gracefully withal, into the higher functions of the judicial representative of the Archbishops of the two Provinces.

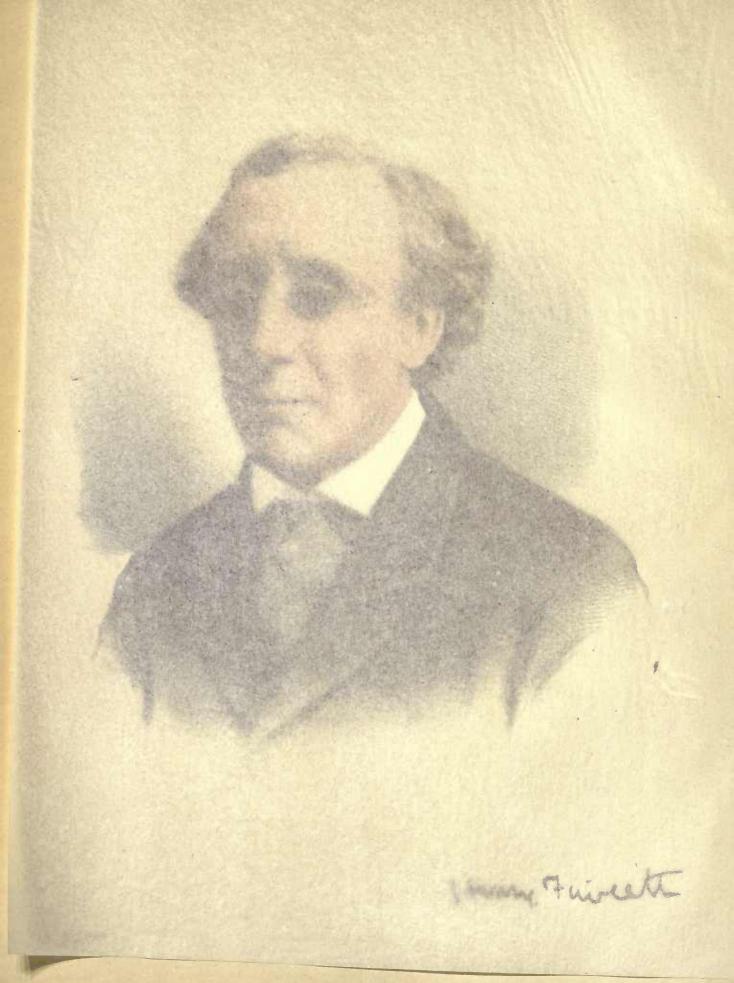




Homy Tweeth

PROFESSOR FAWCETT, M.P.

IT is, nowadays, a sort of social superstition that unless a man be rich or of high family, he dare 1 not as much as dream of a distinguished Parliamentary career. Mr. Fawcett, however, is a gentleman who has helped to explode many superstitious notions in his time, and the story of his vife ought effectually to dispose of this one. It cannot be said that his career in Parliament has been unsuccessful. He is recognised as a "power" in the House of Commons, seldom beloved, often feared, but almost always respected by Ministries, whether Liberal or Tory. Party managers on both sides of the House dare not ignore his voice and vote as forming distinct and impertant factors amongst many others according to which they are wont to cast the horoscope of Ministerial projects. In estimating the chances a measure has of being pushed forward and passed, or retarded and thrown out, the support or opposition of the honourable member for Hackney can never safely be left out of account. And yet Mr. Fawcett, though comfortably circumstanced, is what many would call a poor man. He has no aristocratic connections. His family are not of exalted rank; and to whatever he may owe the position he has gained in the Legislature, it is certainly not to that mysterious agency called "interest," so seldom found associated with any honest or robust political principle. Over and over again we find people who are supposed to know the inner political life of society, asserting that to any but an extremely rich man Parliamentary life means nothing more than a sort of shabby-genteel adhesion to the onter frings of some dominant political clique when in Opposition, and a shrill, chronic squabbling over official plander after the chiefs of that clique become what is called a Government, and allocate the spoils of power amongst their henchmen by way of buying their neutrality or their continued goodwill. Mr. Faweett is, however, despite his lack of riches, the model "independent member," who, so far from clinging to any dominant section, seems always haunted by the morbid suspicion that whenever a party becomes a ruling one, it there and then tends to demoralisation, and forthwith ought to become a fit object for his jealous, unresting, and far from friendly, vigilance. Though professedly a member of the Liberal party, whenever one attempts to assign the member for Hackney a definite place in any political classification merely from what may be called the general impression left on the mind by his Parliamentary life, one invariably thinks of him as a member of Her Majesty's Opposition, not as a member of any party, Liberal or Conservative. It may be, perhaps, that if he were ever induced to hold office under or in some Liberal Cabinet himself, Mr. Fawcett might cease to regard all Governments and placeholders as though they were specially created to illustrate the manner in which "original sin" works itself out in the political world. But any such softening of his present puritanical attitude, as everybody who knows him will admit, would in that case assuredly be due solely to a closer personal experience of official life, with its responsibilities and its embarrassments, and not at all to any inflaence derivable from content with and enjoyment of official privileges or emolarization



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Taking this view of his character, Mr. Fawcett's career is worth studying by every young man of pure and noble political ambitions. It is a living contradiction of the shallow cynical doctrine, so often preached in these days, that Parliament has no room within its walls for poor men who insist on retaining what Burns called "the glorious privilege of being independent."

It would appear that the member for Hackney comes from a respectable, old-fashioned, well-to-do, middle-class rural family; indeed, he was born pretty much in the same rank of life as Oliver Cromwell and most of the sturdy leaders and chiefs of the "Commonwealth men." Mr. Fawcett's family is one that has been settled for some time in Wiltshire, but latterly it seems to have fixed itself near Salisbury, where he was born in 1833. His father was born at Kirby Lonsdale, in 1793. When twenty-one years of age he settled at Salisbury, in the neighbourhood of which he has lived ever since. He was a substantial, prosperous gentleman-farmer, who conducted his business as a tiller of the soil on that large and remunerative scale which seems rather characteristic of Scotland than of England, and he has always been an enthusiastic Liberal politician. He was one of the earliest members of the Anti Corn-Law League, and gave Messrs. Bright and Cobden valuable assistance in their Free-Trade campaign, and even now, though more than eighty years of age, the old gentleman is a ready and effective speaker. Probably the most valuable heritage Professor Fawcett derived from his father and mother was that hard head, fine physique, and robust constitution, which enable him to go through an amount of work that would break down the staying power of most average Englishmen of the studious and literary class. Being a farmer's son, Mr. Fawcett was of course a country-bred lad, into whose whole nature there became inwrought the strong Saxon stuff and stamina that seem to distinguish the "sons of the soil" in this country, whether they be rich or poor, gentle or simple, above all other sorts of Englishmen. After having been at a local school near Salisbury till he was fourteen years of age, at which period he first began to manifest studious tastes, Professor Fawcett was sent to Queenwood College, Hants—where Professors Tyndall and Frankland happened to be teachers at the time, and from thence, when he was sixteen, to King's College, London. During the time he was at this institution, owing to his having frequent opportunities of hearing Parliamentary debates, his taste for politics was developed. In 1852 he proceeded o Cambridge, where he entered Trinity Hall. At school and college Mr. Fawcett was essentially an athlete, but the athleticism of which he was an exponent was that of the brain as well as the body. From his childhood, and from the time when he could run about with his father out of doors, he manifested the strongest and keenest relish for all kinds of rural pursuits. Every variety of field and athletic sport had for him a strange fascination-in short, his tastes were those of a young man accustomed from his earliest days to live the active, burly, open-air life of a gentleman-farmer's son. To this day he bears in his very personal appearance the mark and stamp of his early up-bringing. When people go to the Strangers' Gallery of the House of Commons, and ask, "Where does Professor Fawcett sit?" they are somewhat surprised to find that he does not in his physique at least verify their preconceived idea of him, which is usually that of a thin, sedentary, sea-green, incorruptible ascetica wizened logic-chopper of the Robespierre type. When he rises in his place they are still more surprised to discover that he has a bold, ringing voice like a fox-hunter's, and that in port and bearing his well-knit, stalwart, almost Herculean, frame seems rather to resemble an old border moss-trooper's than that of a modern Cambridge professor. It may be he is speaking on his favourite subject-Indian finance. In that case, just as he emphasises one of his points by driving the big clenched fist of his right hand into the broad muscular palm of his left-almost the only rhetorical gesture in which he ever indulges—one fancies that the Under-Secretary for India, who happens to be at the moment the immediate object of the Professor's critical attention, must be thankful his head is not the open palm into which his critic's fist is driven.

At Cambridge, however, Professor Fawcett was more than an athlete. close student, and being gifted with a peculiarly hard-grained, vigorous brain, he was a singularly successful one. After the usual career of prize-taking and scholarship winning, boating, cricketing, and racquet playing, he graduated as Seventh Wrangler, in 1856, and shortly afterwards was elected a Fellow of Trinity Hall. When his student career was over it became necessary for him to select a profession. When at college he had, as had most able young men at that time, saturated his mind with the teaching of the late John Stuart Mill. As was the ease with nearly everybody who came under the influence of this great teacher, Mr. Fawcett not only became a philosopher, but a political philosopher. Being of a practical turn of mind, it was to him even then a settled conviction that he would not content himself by going through life a mere student of theoretical politics. There was Parliament to get into where political theories could be turned into living legislative facts, so that in choosing his profession it must be one that would enable him to enter some day or other on a Parliamentary career. Thus it came about that he began to study for the Bar, and entered himself as "an apprentice of Lincoln's Inn" in the year 1856. He seems to have regarded the Bar as a convenient means of enabling him to earn a livelihood or competence sufficient to enable him to afford the luxury of a seat in the House of Commons and enter on a Parliamentary career.

But in the month of September, 1858, Mr. Fawcett met with an accident so terrible in its results that in the case of any ordinary man it would not merely have changed the tenor of his professional life, but put an end to all aspirations he might have entertained of ever figuring prominently in public at all. When with a partridge-shooting party one of his companions inadvertently shot him in the eyes. The first sharp twinge of pain over, Professor Fawcett felt no more uneasiness; but from that moment till now he has lived in the darkness of perpetual night. So utterly blind did he become, that from the time of his accident he has been ntterly unable to distinguish, even in the faintest way, between the pitch-darkness of night and the glare at "mid of noon."

Perhaps the one who seemed least concerned about the matter was the unfortunate victim himself. It is said that an hour or so after he was shot, and when he felt convinced that he was blind for life, he made up his mind what to do with reference to the dark future before him. It is a characteristic example of the hardy, bold resoluteness of the man that he determined that, whatever came to pass, he would not stumble back to the rear with the wounded ones who every now and then fall out of the line in the "march of life." He resolved he would yet make a strong, stout fight for a place even in the front rank; and he settled it with himself that he must henceforth devote himself exclusively to polities, and get into Parliament as soon as possible. Of course, people who knew him—or, rather, who did not know him thoroughly—thought him mad. Could a man who was both blind and poor hope to get a seat in the House of Commons, or distinguish himself there after he got it? Many urged him still to carry out his original intention, and go to the Bar. The benchers of Lincoln's Inn kindly offered to "call" him without the usual formality of examination. One or two friends who were solicitors were willing to help him with briefs. But Mr. Fawcett resisted all these persuasions. He felt he might have practised with some degree of success in spite of his infirmity. Some cases he might have mauaged well enough, and when he

won them all would be well. But it appeared to him that when he lost a case, as the best lawyer will do sometimes, it might be suspected that his blindness, and not the badness of the cause, occasioned the adverse judgment. The consciousness that this might be said of him he felt would diminish that confidence in himself and in his powers when pleading which is, of course, essential to the success of any advocate.

In the first place, Mr. Fawcett resolved that his blindness should make as little difference as possible in his habits and mode of life. Cricket, racquets, and shooting, of course, he had to give up; but he still indulged in riding, rowing, skating, and fishing. His accident took place when he was twenty-five years of age, and his fingers, having lost the plasticity of childhood, never acquired the exquisitely delicate tactile sense that almost makes them do the work of eyes for the blind. His sense of hearing has naturally grown more acute, and his memory has increased in tenacity. But though he had the advantage of becoming blind at an age when his education was completed, he had the disadvantage of having to cultivate into a keener state of sensibility faculties which by that time had been moulded in the firm set of manhood, and were thus less susceptible of further development. As an illustration of this, one might allude to Professor Fawcett's memory, which is said to be very extraordinary. Although by long practice he can concentrate attention so closely that he can pick out the gist of a Parliamentary report from hearing it read to him, though he could reply to a budget speech on the spur of the moment without being able to take notes of it, though he can make a long speech about finance full of figures and calculations, yet his is not what might be called a good verbatim memory. He cannot, for example, undertake to learn by rote a hundred lines of poetry or a hundred lines of anything. He seems able to grasp the sequence of arguments and to fix facts and figures essential to his case in his mind so tightly, that his infirmity forcing him as it does to speak without notes is almost an advantage to him. It enables him to share with Mr. Gladstone and the late Mr. Cobden the reputation of being one of the few English politicians who could ever make a statistical speech that completely rivets the attention of his audience. Indeed, when people ask Mr. Fawcett how it is that everybody understands his financial speeches, he is wont laughingly to quote Cobden's remark to the effect that his audience understands his figures because Because he has to carry all his figures in his memory he understands them himself, he is forced to use in his addresses not only the simplest but the smallest possible number of statistical illustrations—just enough, in fact, on which to run a train of reasoning. Thus it is that he is never confused or confusing in the presentment of his argument. Strangely enough, he has, despite his blindness, cherished his passion for field sports and out-of-door recreation. He is even yet a bold rider-rather famous for taking the work out of his cattle: indeed, it is said at Cambridge, that when he goes out riding with a couple of friends, as is his wont, they find fifty per cent. put on to the hire of their horses when the livery-stable keeper discovers they have been accompanying the Professor of Political Economy. His old love of rowing, too, has never abated; and when he is in residence at Cambridge, discharging the duties of his professorship, he still pulls "stroke oar" in the boat of the "Ancient Mariners Club"-a body of dignified academic athletes, who, despite their fellowships, their tutorships, and professorships, still indulge in the manly sports of their youth. Perhaps the oddest accomplishment for which Professor Fawcett is notable is that, in spite of his blindness, he is a keen and successful salmon-fisher. There are very few amateurs, indeed, who can beat him at this sport, though he admits himself that he is not now so expert at trout-fishing as in his younger days. Walking is an exercise to which he is nearly as much devoted as the late Charles Dickens;

indeed, next to skating, it is perhaps his favourite recreation. As for skating, to this day he thinks but little of taking a fifty-mile spin on the ice in the fen-country. In society, again, Professor Fawcett appears to enjoy himself to the top of his bent. There are few more genial companions or more mirthful talkers; and in College Hall after dinner, it is said at Cambridge that the heartiest merriment comes from the corner where the Professor of Political Economy happens to be seated. Although, of course, there is a world of pleasure, such as picture-hunting for example, from which a blind man of high culture is undoubtedly excluded, yet Mr. Fawcett's experience and manifestly healthy cheerfulness of mind and manner, apart altogether from the vigorous activity of his life, intellectual as well as bodily, ought to open up a vista of hopefulness to many who, having lost their eyesight, imagine that for them existence has lost its usefulness, and life its savour and its relish.

No doubt, at first Mr. Fawcett had many difficulties to contend with, the chief being, perhaps, that people would have it that he must be mad to dream of doing what he proposed doing, and what he has since done. When he gave up the Bar he devoted himself specially to the study of political economy—always one of his favourite subjects. He began to write essays in various periodicals of an advanced type on economic questions. He published his "Manual of Political Economy," a most useful student's text-book, of which the fifth edition has been published, and the obvious merits of which, together with the warm recommendation of Mr. Mill, did much to get him his professorship. Mr. Cobden and Mr. Mill gave him the greatest encouragement to persevere in the ardnous path on which he had entered; and a speech of his on "Co-operation," delivered at the Social Science Congress at Glasgow, attracted the notice of Lord Brougham and many other eminent personages. What he wrote about the economic conditions of agricultural labour in England was also pregnant with sound practical good sense, and inspired by boldness of thought; for though the critics who abused it sneered at him as a theorist, yet from his childhood he had come most closely into contact with all classes of agricultural labourers and employers in Wiltshire, where his mother's family had long been settled, and where the Professor had resided during his During the time of the great builders' strike in London, too, he had delivered a lecture on Trades-Unionism in Exeter Hall, which won the admiration of the working classes, who saw that in him they had got a powerful and thoroughly trustworthy friend and advocate. Thus it came to pass that in 1861, when Sir Charles Napier, then member for Southwark, died, Mr. Fawcett's name was not altogether unknown to the public-at least to the democratic public; and when on the morning on which he heard of the death of "Black Charlie," he drove down in a cab to Southwark, a place in which he positively knew not a single soul, he was not altogether himself unknown. He drove to a printer's, and ordered a number of bills to be issued, announcing himself as a candidate for the Parliamentary representation of the borough. The step was so bold that of course people again doubted his mental sanity; but he persevered. He had no money to spare in hiring agents and canvassers; but once he got at the electors through a few speeches, and frankly explained why he would not contest the borough on paid agency principles, a little loyal following gathered round him and acted as his agents and canvassers for nothing. Besides his strong Radical opinions, and the frank uncompromising honesty with which he avowed them and stuck to them, though they were in some cases far from popular, the pluck of the man fascinated the electors, for, even in politics, pluck such as Professor Fawcett's is perhaps the one thing that never goes out of fashion in England. he unfortunately would not pledge himself to go to the poll, so that the party who would have

supported him brought forward Mr. Layard, and towards the close of the contest Mr. Fawcett retired to prevent the Liberals being divided. He used to say that when he began the fight his friends thought it such a mad venture that he was forced to conceal the address of his lodgings to free himself from the worry of receiving the cloud of remonstrances that every postal delivery poured in upon him. He had, however, by this contest convinced the public blindness was not an insuperable obstacle to a man's being a useful politician or Parliamentary representative—a notion which he found it hard to fight against when he began the contest. He also convinced himself that it was quite possible to contest an election without spending more than £120 or £200 on it; without paid agents and canvassers; without personal house to house solicitation—in a word, on perfectly independent principles. In 1863 he contested the borough of Cambridge, but was beaten by a majority of eighty. In the same year he became Professor of Political Economy in the University of Cambridge, thereby attaining a modest competence, such as a gentleman of simple tastes and habits could live very comfortably upon. In 1864 he contested Brighton, and was distinguished for his warm and trenchant advocacy of the Northern States of America during the Civil War. On this occasion he was unsuccessful; but in the general election of 1865 he was triumphantly returned for Brighton by a majority of 500 over his Tory opponent. At the next election he was again returned; but as Brighton was one of those constituencies which were rendered Conservative by the extension of the franchise, he was defeated in the general election in 1874; but he entered Parliament again almost immediately afterwards, when, on the retirement of Sir Charles Reed, he was returned for Hackney.

In Parliament, of course, Mr. Fawcett sits with the extreme and independent Liberal members below the gangway of the House of Commons. He is seldom to be found absent from his place when a job is being exposed, or a piece of wasteful spendthriftness is to be opposed. Yet he does not as a rule speak on such matters, though his vote is always given most steadily in favour of every reformer who tries to check abuses. Indeed, the secret of his success in Parliament lies in this—that he only speaks on matters to which he has devoted long and careful study, and the details of which he knows better than anybody who can possibly oppose him. He seemingly makes it a rule also never to bring forward personal questions or grievances, as distinguished from public ones, or from matters of pure principle. Though he has never been in India, and has not the remotest interest, personal or pecuniary, in that country, he is ever listened to with great respect when he speaks upon Indian questions; indeed, of late he has become known as the "Member for Hackney and Hindostan." The reason is obvious. He never meddles with the official details of Indian administration, or the personal grievances of Indian officers and civil servants; he confines himself strictly to criticising the great broad general principles of Indian administration or mal-administration. The first time he had his attention attracted to India was when, on the occasion of the Sultan's visit to this country, the Government tried to clear the expenses of His Majesty's visit and entertainment by quietly foisting the charges on to the backs of the Indian taxpayers. Mr. Fawcett, who has a warm hatred for meanness or bullying, especially when inflicted on the weak by the strong, created an indignant feeling against the Government by denouncing with scathing bitterness the injustice of this arrangement. About this time his was about the most popular name in Hindostan, and the people of that dependency have more than once given prominently-recorded proof of their gratitude to him for his gallant though futile attempt to guard their interests. There is no moral doubt in the minds of most close observers that, had it

not been for fear of rousing Mr. Fawcett once more, the Government would, on the occasion of the Shah of Persia's visit to England, have attempted to transfer the cost of his entertainment also to the Indian treasury. Perhaps one of the finest speeches Mr. Fawcett ever made was upon the financial condition of India in 1872, when he got a committee of the House of Commons appointed to inquire into the state of Indian finances, and exposed the fallacious nature of those surpluses which Indian accounts always show. The speech was one of those solid, thorough-going, lucid addresses, full of hard work, which the House of Commons not only likes but respects. It marked out Mr. Fawcett as a man whose clear-headed perceptions and power of patient industry, not to mention his faculty of fluent and lucid exposition, might one of these days make his services officially indispensable to some future Government. With reference to this matter, it may be mentioned as an encouraging fact to those who think that "the public do not care about India," that Mr. Fawcett has found the work he has done for our Eastern Empire, and the interest he has taken in it, most gratefully appreciated by his constituents. When he stood for Hackney, next to the sturdy part he had played in resisting the attempts that were being made to filch away Epping Forest from the people, he found it was his Indian work which, more than almost anything else, helped him to find favour in the eyes of the electors. With regard to Home politics, it may be said that Mr. Fawcett is a thorough-going Radical, and his views are the result of a strenuous effort to apply to practical government and legislation the principles of John Stuart Mill. The odd thing about his popularity with the skilled artisan class is the fact that he holds many opinions obnoxious to them. He is such a hater of paternal government, and such a fanatical upholder of individual freedom, that he views with suspicion all factory legislation that interferes with the labour of adults; whilst as for the Permissive Bill, his hostile criticisms on it, when pressed to give his views by some of his Brighton constituents in 1874, made them wish they had never made it what they called "a test question" with the Most democratic measures for reforming the representation of the people have his support; whilst as for financial reform, and the economical re-adjustment of the machinery of local taxation, the member for Hackney is rarely silent when somebody is wanted to speak a bold, strong word in behalf of either. However, it has been as an advocate of the freest and most unsectarian system of national education attainable that Professor Fawcett has specially distinguished himself of late years in Home politics. It was to his dogged and persistent opposition, more than to that of any other member, that Mr. Gladstone's Bill, attempting to reform the University of Dublin, was defeated; his hostility to it being due to the fact that the Prime Minister, in order to conciliate the Irish priesthood, cut out of the curriculum such studies as history, moral science, and the like, and inserted many other provisions that would have practically handed over the higher education of Ireland to the Romish Church. When this Bill was defeated, Mr. Fawcett became a sort of hero in the House of Commons, inasmuch as they had to fall back on a measure which he himself had introduced, abolishing religious tests in Trinity College, Dublin. Latterly Mr. Fawcett's educational efforts seem to have been directed mainly to an attempt to get the benefit of the Factory Acts extended to the children of agricultural labourers. The only other "burning question" with which the Professor identifies himself is pauper He is the determined opponent of the lavish administration of out-door reliefholding that this form of charity means simply that the ratepayers, by eking out the wages of unskilled and badly-remunerated workers, are virtually paying a proportion of the wage fund which ought to be paid by the masters-in other words, taxing themselves in order to give the employers their labour for half-price.

As a lecturer in Cambridge and a speaker in the House of Commons, Professor Fawcett has won a high reputation. He vivifies the dry bones of economic science by fixing the attention of his students not merely on the logical reasoning out of its principles, but on their practical application and working in the affairs of contemporary life. He is "no orator as Brutus was," but he is a man of wide reading, of bold independence of mind, great intellectual intrepidity, and extremely acute readywittedness, all of which qualities make him a formidable Parliamentary debater. In his wife—herself well known as a spirited champion of the "Rights of Women," and as a skilful writer on social questions—he has fortunately a patient assistant, to whom it is a labour of love to act as her sightless husband's eyes. To her quick and trained intelligence it is in no small measure due that the Professor finds the work of selecting, arranging, and methodising the materials for his speeches vastly simplified for him. Indeed, as he gets her and his secretary to read and write for him, he probably clears his way through his work even more quiekly than most men able to use their eyes would do. In the House of Commons his is essentially the rhetoric of conviction, not of persuasion. It is by the almost monotonous distinctness of utterance, lucidity of arrangement, extreme simplicity of illustration, and remorseless rigidity of their logical structure, that his speeches impress the listener. He always knows precisely what he means. He apparently never has the smallest doubt in his own mind that what he means is and must be absolutely right, and he speaks with the air of one who, whilst admitting that he is in a hopeless minority just now, is quite sure that all the world will be on his side ere he has sat down. There never seems to be the smallest crack or joint of doubt in the iron armour of his political belief, and he conveys the impression that the only sympathy with stupidity which he can afford to waste upon his opponents is a feeling of pity that they are so weak-minded as not to yield to his manifestly irresistible series of syllogisms. In a great discussion he shines in two ways-firstly, by the adroitness with which he lifts it out of the level plane of Parliamentary conventionality, and by the half-savage tenacity with which he fixes on the weak arguments of his antagonists and tears them to pieces. In fact, he is most skilful in applying the well-digested thought and carefully-reasoned principles of philosophy to the salient points of debate. In dealing with antagonists, again, his favourite method is to argue up to them on their own line with the greatest apparent fairness and candour, till they begin to think they have made a convert of him, and then, just when he gets within logical reach of them, as it were, to deal them a swift crushing blow, which leaves them stunned and stupefied for a little while, during which period he leisurely cuts them into little bits with a few keen-edged sarcasms. It has been said that Professor Fawcett shares with Mr. Lowe the defect of being cold and unsympathetic. Still, it is very clear that although the member for Haekney is not a genial or impassioned orator, he has what Mr. Lowe has not-powerful intellectual, political, and humane sympathies, which on occasion lift him out of himself, and merge his whole nature in the rushing tide of humanity. These are rather valuable qualities in a democratic leader, and they may in some measure compensate the possessor of them if Nature has denied him the dangerous gift of political sentimentality.



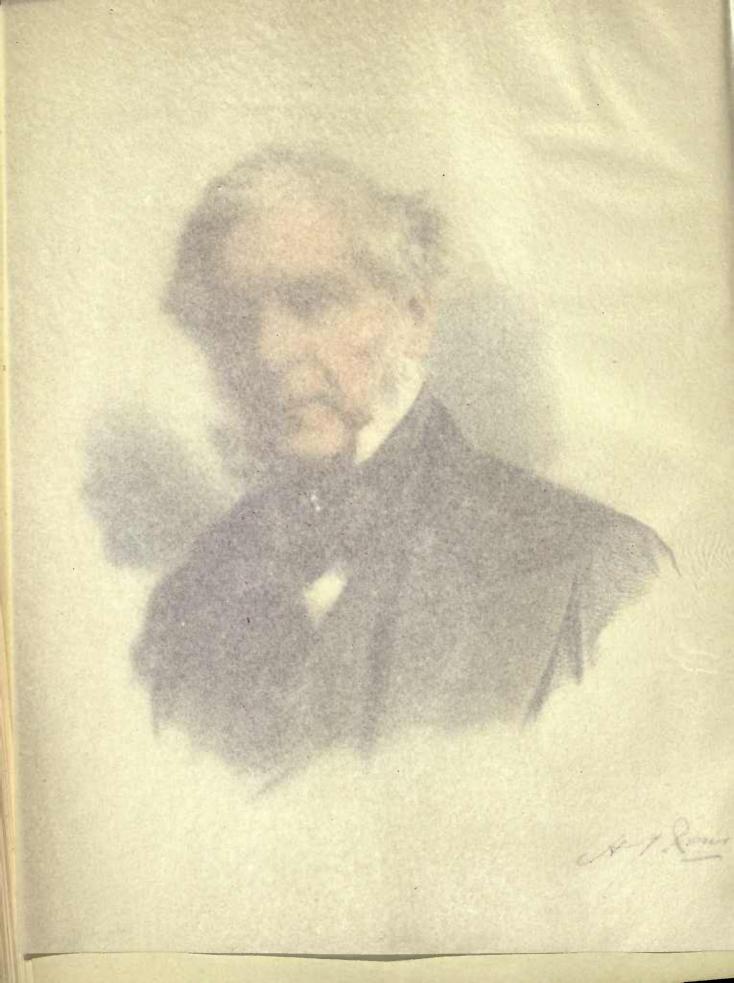


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ADMIRAL THE HON. H. J. ROUS.

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ENRY JOHN ROUS, the second son of the first Earl of Stradbroke, by his second wife, Charlotte Maria, daughter of A. Whittaker, Esq., was born at Henham Hall, Suffolk, on the 33rd of January, 1795. He was married in January, 1836, to Sophia, only daughter of J. R. Cuthbert, Esq.; and her death, which occurred in January, 1871, called forth such general expressions of sympathy, that Admiral Rous received a touching proof of the esteem in which he was held by all sorts and conditions of racing men, and-it may safely be added-by the general public. Having an early inclination for salt water, young Mr. Rous was put through a course of training for the many, and the record of his naval career is sufficiently remarkable to be given in some detail. After being at Westminster School for some time, he became, in the year 1808, a midshipman on board the Repulse; and in this, his first ship, he took part in the Flushing expedition. He next served in the Fictory, and afterwards, from 1812 to 1814, in the Bacchante, under Sir William Heste. While in this vessel-which during the greater part of her commission was stationed in the Mediterranean, and was employed principally in destroying coasting traders on both sides of the Adriatic-he saw much active service, being engaged in nearly every boat action against the enemy which took place. In the winter of 1813, having been appointed prize-master of a vessel laden with rice, which had been captured by the British, he distinguished himself by conducting her, during a heavy easterly gale and amidst the greatest difficulties, from Lissa to Malta; and for his bravery during the time he was in the Mediterranean he received a medal. In the following year (1814), when nineteen years of age, Mr. Rous was made lieutenant. Having served for a time in the Meander and the Conqueror, he was, in April, 1817, appointed acting-commander of the Podargus, on the St. Helena station. Returning home in 1819, he next commanded the Sappho, on the coast of Ireland; and in 1822-23 served on board the Hind in the Archipelago, under Captain Hamilton. In March of the last-named year (1823), he was dispatched to the Island of Caxo in search of a Greek pirate-ship, which bud plundered a Maltese vessel called the Georgio; and it was on this occasion that his cool courage and audacity were again conspicuously displayed. On his arrival at Caxo he found the pirate-ship in the company of no fewer than nine armed Greek brigs; and in spite of this, Captain Rous not only obtained possession of her, but ultimately failing to secure the redress which he demanded, blew up the vessel. Shortly afterwards he was actively employed in Canea Harbour, and succeeded in bringing the Turkish Pasha to reason, and in obtaining compensation for the plunder by the Turks and Tunisians of a Maltese vessel called the San Francisco. In an official communication, dated the 6th of October, 1823, Captain Hamilton informed Captain Rous that he was ordered to convey to him the Commander-in-Chief's "high sense of his zeal, spirit, and prudence in arranging different affairs relating to the British commerce during his last cruise;" and in the course of the letter he added that he attributed the success of the



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ENRY JOHN ROUS, the second son of the first Earl of Stradbroke, by his second wife, Charlotte Maria, daughter of A. Whittaker, Esq., was born at Henham Hall, Suffolk, on the 23rd of January, 1795. He was married in January, 1836, to Sophia, only daughter of J. R. Cuthbert, Esq.; and her death, which occurred in January, 1871, called forth such general expressions of sympathy, that Admiral Rous received a touching proof of the esteem in which he was held by all sorts and conditions of racing men, and-it may safely be added-by the general public. Having an early inclination for salt water, young Mr. Rous was put through a course of training for the navy, and the record of his naval career is sufficiently remarkable to be given in some detail. After being at Westminster School for some time, he became, in the year 1808, a midshipman on board the Repulse; and in this, his first ship, he took part in the Flushing expedition. He next served in the Victory, and afterwards, from 1812 to 1814, in the Bacchante, under Sir While in this vessel-which during the greater part of her commission was stationed in the Mediterranean, and was employed principally in destroying coasting traders on both sides of the Adriatic-he saw much active service, being engaged in nearly every boat action against the enemy which took place. In the winter of 1813, having been appointed prize-master of a vessel laden with rice, which had been captured by the British, he distinguished himself by conducting her, during a heavy easterly gale and amidst the greatest difficulties, from Lissa to Malta; and for his bravery during the time he was in the Mediterranean he received In the following year (1814), when nineteen years of age, Mr. Rous was made lieutenant. Having served for a time in the Meander and the Conqueror, he was, in April, 1817, appointed acting-commander of the Podargus, on the St. Helena station. home in 1819, he next commanded the Sappho, on the coast of Ireland; and in 1822-23 served on board the Hind in the Archipelago, under Captain Hamilton. In March of the last-named year (1823), he was dispatched to the Island of Caxo in search of a Greek pirate-ship, which had plundered a Maltese vessel called the Georgio; and it was on this occasion that his cool courage and audacity were again conspicuously displayed. On his arrival at Caxo he found the pirate-ship in the company of no fewer than nine armed Greek brigs; and in spite of this, Captain Rous not only obtained possession of her, but ultimately failing to secure the redress which he demanded, blew up the vessel. Shortly afterwards he was actively employed in Canea Harbour, and succeeded in bringing the Turkish Pasha to reason, and in obtaining compensation for the plunder by the Turks and Tunisians of a Maltese vessel called the San Francisco. In an official communication, dated the 6th of October, 1823, Captain Hamilton informed Captain Rous that he was ordered to convey to him the Commander-in-Chief's "high sense of his zeal, spirit, and prudence in arranging different affairs relating to the British commerce during his last cruise;" and in the course of the letter he added that he attributed the success of the

English flag in the Archipelago in a great degree "to Captain Rous's activity, to his keeping at sea in all weathers and seasons among the islands, to the manner in which the Hind was always handled, and to the will with which everything was done on board of her, from the highest to the lowest." In the same year he was promoted to post rank, and was placed in command of the Rainbow, on the East Indian station, where he served from 1825 to 1829, when he temporarily retired on half pay. In 1834 he resumed his duties, having been appointed to the Pique. It was in the following year, during his command of the last-named vessel, that, while returning from Canada, with Lord and Lady Aylmer on board, the ship, during a fog, struck upon a reef on the coast of Labrador, and narrowly escaped destruction. Captain Rous, however, contrived to get clear of the rocks, and notwithstanding that the foremast was sprung, the keel lost, the rudder washed away, and that there was a continuous leakage during the entire voyage, he and his gallant erew succeeded, by dint of skill and endurance, in navigating the ship safely across the Atlantic to Spithead, though only after a tedious struggle which lasted three weeks. In thus saving one of the king's ships the officers and men not unnaturally considered that they deserved well of their country, and hopefully anticipated that at least some acknowledgment of their services would be made to them. They were disappointed, however, and no reward of any kind was bestowed upon them; indeed, the reception accorded to Captain Rous on his arrival in England took the shape of a courtmartial, though he was in the end fully acquitted of all blame in connection with the accident. Soon after this he received a second appointment to the Pique; but this command he relinquished as soon as he had completed his full sea-time, when he finally retired from the service.

As a politician, Captain Rous never occupied any very prominent position. He was elected member for Westminster in 1841, but he was defeated at the general election of 1846, his attitude with regard to the Repeal of the Corn Laws not being in accordance with the views of his constituency. Captain Rous—who became a Rear-Admiral in 1852—was also for a short time one of the Lords of the Admiralty, and he has never ceased to take an interest in naval matters, his letters to the *Times* and other newspapers with regard to ironclad vessels, being written with all his wonted piquancy and force. It would, perhaps, be too much to say that Admiral Rous took the same view of ironclads that M. Thiers expressed of railways, when he came over to inspect the line between Manchester and Liverpool some forty-five years ago—viz., "that they would be all very well to amuse the Parisians." But assuredly he was never at any pains to disguise his dislike of the substitutes for the "wooden walls" from within which he gained his chief laurels.

But, heroie as were the exploits of Admiral Rous at sea, his name is far more familiar to the great majority of Englishmen as the lawgiver of the Turf, and in this capacity his name was—and will long continue to be—known and respected throughout the length and the breadth of the United Kingdom. He had, in early life, been accustomed to see racehorses trained in his father's park at Henham, and thus acquired, perhaps inherited, a taste for horse-racing, and as far back as 1821, the Racing Calendar records his name as the owner of a mare called Mæotis, with whom he won three matches, and whom he afterwards sold at a profit. At intervals between this and the year 1840, his name figures in the racing records of the day, and it was in the latter year that he entered into partnership with the uncle of the present Duke of Bedford, who had a large stud in training at Newmarket. The new confederacy did not achieve any very notable triumphs, and was, in fact, more remarkable for its bad luck than for anything else; but the Admiral was not a man to despair, and failing success in any important race, he had the satisfaction

of making many matches between his own horses and those of other people. These matches his skill in handicapping generally enabled him to win, and it used to be whispered at Newmarket that some owners of racehorses were not sorry to get the worst of a match with the Admiral, because they thought that the defeat of their representative would lead him to form an unfavourable estimate of its capabilities in some future handicap. But if they had any such idea as this, it was certainly a misleading one, for Admiral Rous was too old a bird to be caught by so transparent a device. If, however, the Duke of Bedford and Admiral Rous did not possess a good horse during their partnership, they would have done so if the life of the former had been prolonged for another year, as amongst the animals sold after the Duke's death in 1861, was Asteroid, by Stockwell. This horse-almost, if not quite, the best of his year-was purchased by Sir Joseph Hawley, for whom he won the Gold Cup at Ascot, the Chester Cup, and many other important races, and that he should have ever left Admiral Rous's possession is characteristic of the bad luck which always followed him as an owner of horses. After the sale of the Duke of Bedford's stud, he never had more than two or three horses in training, and for the last few years of his life the harlequin jacket which he had selected for his colours was not sported at all.

But if Admiral Rous has not left his impress upon the racing records of the time as an owner of horses, he occupies a far different position with regard to the management of the turf; for there can be no doubt that he wielded almost unlimited power within the councils of the English Jockey Club for the last thirty years of his life. He was elected a steward in 1840, and obtained considerable ascendancy over his colleagues from the very first. When Lord George Bentinck, who had so long filled the post of handicapper, came to his untimely end, it was generally felt that Admiral Rous was the man to fill his place; and no better choice could have been made, nor would it have been easy to find any one willing to undertake the very responsible duties which the position entailed. In the first place, the office is a very thankless one, for while upon the one hand it is difficult to steer clear of the reproach of showing favour to certain stables or to certain owners, upon the other there are always plenty of people ready to complain that their horses have been unfairly dealt with. Admiral Rous was certainly not knowingly partial, and if he did sometimes appear to treat the Findon and Stanton horses with undue leniency, it must be remembered that many of the swans proved to be geese, and that in the great majority of cases the Admiral's judgment was triumphantly vindicated. Mistakes he doubtless committed, as, for instance, when he gave such a light weight to Sutton—a Findon horse, by the way—in the Cambridgeshire of 1875, and the victory of that patched-up cripple was all the more galling to Admiral Rous, because a fortnight previously he had "given" the Cesarewitch to Duke of Parma, who ought to have had at least another stone on his back. The stables in which these two horses were trained would not have had any great chance of repeating their success in handicaps for which Admiral Rous adjusted the weights, for he was not prone to forget, and the older habitués of the turf remember how severe he was upon all horses belonging to the late Mr. Merry after Lioness had spread-eagled her field in the Cesarewitch of 1863. But if, by going back over a long series of years, it is possible to adduce instances in which Admiral Rous committed some error of judgment or was hoodwinked by unscrupulous owners, who let their horses be beaten in order to get in at a light weight, it would be far easier to cite cases in which the weights were adjusted to such a nicety that three or four horses finished within a head of one another; and this is what may be considered the perfection of handicapping. Admiral Rous himself was fully alive to the fact that mistakes must be made, and in his remarks on handicapping

(in his "Laws and Practice of Horse-Racing") he very candidly said :- "Having expatiated on the errors of the system, I may be called upon to suggest an improvement. Two schemes have been proposed: first, that a public handicapper should be appointed, to be paid a fixed salary, or to receive certain fees in proportion to the acceptances of the great handicaps; secondly, that the handicappers shall sign their names, thereby acknowledging their responsibility, and their readiness to submit to the many unpleasant remarks which may be showered on the imaginary defaults of their composition. Grave objections may be stated against both of these plans. A public handicapper should be a man of independent circumstances, in every sense of the word, and beyond the suspicion of accepting illicit compensation for favours received. Attached to no stable, a good judge of the condition of the horse, but with a more intimate knowledge of the dispositions of owners and trainers, he should be a spectator of every race of any importance in the United Kingdom, and his station should be at the distance-post, where horses are pulled, not at the winning-post, where they are extended; he should never make a bet; and he should treat all the remarks which are made about his handicaps with the utmost indifference. Such a man is not to be found. With respect to the second proposal, the most honourable gentleman may object to be set up as a popinjay for the mark of every scribbler. His handicaps may be unwarrantably attacked, but he is precluded from defending himself. It is his duty to put heavy weights on horses which he has good reason to suspect have not been running 'on the square,' or which have been kept backward in condition. There is nothing so fallacious as the public running of some horses. Last year I saw a horse run in two great handicaps, carrying the same weight, the same jockey, and nearly the same field of horses. In the first race he was beaten nearly half a mile, but in the second race he became a great favourite, and I should estimate his improvement in fourteen days, according to his public running, to have been not less than three stone. Similar cases of a milder description may be seen in most of the great handicaps. These are reasons for stating that no handicapper should be called upon to explain. In trying to prevent a robbery, he may be unjust—individuals must suffer for the public good." These are Admiral Rous's own words, and he concluded his pertinent and forcible remarks by declaring that he had no improvement to suggest, and that the system of handicapping must always be imperfect, because it is the object of many interested persons to deceive the handicapper, and that "it will never be improved by the employment of paid agents of the most irreproachable character, because they are not in the position to impose marked penalties, in the shape of extra weight, on the horses belonging to notorious offenders." The office which Admiral Rous held when he penned these lines, and which was filled by him to the day of his death, is too thankless a one to make it probable that he was suggesting arguments for his own retention of power; but there can be no doubt that they did apply with peculiar force to himself, as he embodied all the qualities which he enumerates as essential to success in handicapping, and never spared himself hard work, for it must be remembered that during many years Admiral Rous framed all the principal handicaps not only at Newmarket, but at Epsom, Ascot, Goodwood, and other meetings. In many of these races the entries were to be counted by the hundred, and it was necessary for him to go through the various performances of all these horses, to consider whether there was any reason for disregarding their public performances, and for erediting them with greater capacities than they had hitherto displayed. But it may be said that in cases of this kind he had a week or two before him, as a certain time is always allowed to elapse between the closing of the entries and the publication of the weights. But in the small handicaps at Newmarket, the entries for which close the night before running, his task was a still more delicate one, for he often had to

deal with four or five races of this kind, and had only two or three hours to do the work. Admiral Rous did not of late years compile quite so many handicaps as formerly, but to the last there was no sign of decrepitude in his work, and it is no mere form of words to say that as a handicapper we shall not, in all probability, "look upon his like again."

The influence of Admiral Rous in the councils of the Jockey Club was always exercised for good, so far as the morality of the turf was concerned, and it did one good to read his vigorous and unsparing denunciations of the parasites of racing who had got the unhappy Marquis of Hastings into their clutches, and who had compelled him to strike one of his horses out of the Derby on the eve of the race. This was in 1868, and Admiral Rous's simile of "the spider and the fly" was considered so happy that the former name has always attached to the archconspirator who hatched the plot. The Admiral was threatened with an action, but he laughed all such menaces to scorn, knowing that while one of the aggrieved persons had been struck off the roll of attorneys, another had been ordered off the Turf many years before for beating the leg of a Derby favourite with a brickbat. So Admiral Rous came triumphantly out of the mêlée, and gained himself many additional friends by his manly resolve not to be terrorised out of speaking his mind. Two years before this there had occurred one of the most interesting events in connection with Admiral Rous's racing career, and visitors to the Horse Show at Islington in 1877 will doubtless have looked with admiration upon the splendid candelabra which, together with a full-length portrait of himself, were presented to him on the 18th of June, 1866, by a number of noblemen and gentlemen who were anxious to testify their esteem for the gallant handicapper. At this banquet, held on the anniversary of the battle of Waterloo, the chair was taken by Earl Granville, who, speaking with his accustomed geniality and felicity, was cheered to the echo, whether he told how a departed political chief had considered a race-meeting "good reasons" for the postponement of a Cabinet Council; or how the Admiral had appeared on the hustings, at the time of his election for Westminster, with two men from his old ship the Pique; or jocularly remarked how Lord John Russell "might have made an excellent light-weight rider if he had only turned his attention to it in early life." Speeches were also made by the Duke of Beaufort, Mr. Payne, Mr. (now Sir Henry) Hawkins, and others. The Admiral, in returning thanks for the testimonial, almost broke down at first, particularly in noticing the death, a short time before, of his old friend the Earl of Chesterfield - through which event the banquet had been postponed for a fortnight; he gradually recovered, however, and in relating some passages in his naval career, warmed up, and became himself again, modestly concluding by saying that he hoped when "the old Admiral had hauled down his flag the Turf might be served by a better man." It was on this occasion that Jennings, the trainer to Count de Lagrange, who in the previous year had won the Derby with Gladiateur, expressed a hope that he should "soon have another Gladiateur for you;" but this expectation has not yet been fulfilled, and after the discomfiture of Chamant in 1877, the faith of the British public in French favourites will not be quite so unshakable as it was for some time before his defeat.

But what may be considered his magnum opus—the work which will serve to keep his name alive in the distant future—is his volume on the "Laws and Practice of Horse-Racing," and he speaks with so much authority upon all the topics treated of that it has become a book of reference. If ever there was a dispute as to any particular interpretation of racing law, or if two men had made a wager upon some subject, the immediate suggestion was that Admiral Rous should be made the arbiter, and his verdiet was invariably accepted without a murmur. But if for rectitude of

purpose Admiral Rous has had no superiors, and few equals, it can scarcely be said that he has done much to improve the actual condition of the Turf. Admiral Rous was apparently unable to understand that the Turf, like everything else, has been subject to the influences of the last half-century, and that what was feasible and right when he first became an owner of racehorses is not in keeping with the spirit of the present day. This will account for the steadiness with which he set his face against changes which, to all those who have the best interests of the Turf at heart, seemed imperiously called for. If there is one thing certain, it is that the victories in late years of French and foreign horses are due to the system of racing which prevails in the countries from which they come; to the moderate work imposed upon two-year-olds; to the avoiding of short-distance races; and to the small number of handicaps. One would imagine that this fact could not have escaped the perceptive faculties of Admiral Rous; yet it must be said that he would never lend his powerful voice to the adoption of similar measures upon the English Turf. He was one of the most thorough-going opponents of the late Sir Joseph Hawley, when "the lucky Baronet," who four times won the Derby, introduced his measure of Turf reform, in 1870; and it is only three or four years since he did all in his power to defeat Lord Coventry, who, with a better insight than Admiral Rous possessed into the causes which have brought about the deterioration of the English racehorse, proposed to make the minimum weight in handicaps seven stone, instead of five stone seven pounds, as it now is. Lord Coventry believed that he had a majority on the day before his motion came on; but he had counted without the Admiral, whose influence was exerted to such purpose that the "noes" had it when the division took place. Upon the other hand, it is only just to say that if Admiral Rous would not raise the minimum, he would do nothing towards lowering it, and he earned the thanks of all those who are interested in our breed of horses for the part which he took in repealing Mr. Alexander's mischievous motion—carried by a chance majority—for reducing the minimum to four stone seven pounds. This was only effected in May, 1877, and it was the last occasion upon which Admiral Rous appeared at Newmarket. Even in little things Admiral Rous was averse to change, and a better exemplification of this fact could not be found than in the simple statement that, as he himself afterwards admitted, he "gave the Cambridgeshire of 1870 to Adonis," the German horse, through mistaking him for an English colt of the same name. Yet, if Admiral Rous would only have taken up the question of naming racehorses, and have brought forward a rule to prevent the same name being given to more than one horse for an interval of at least ten years, such an error could not have been committed; and it is characteristic of the man that, in spite of the mistake into which he was led by the insufficient identification of this horse, he would never take any steps to prevent its recurrence. To insist upon some regular system of nomenclature would be to interfere with the liberty of the subject—for which, however, the Admiral expressed but scant respect when that liberty happened to stand in his way.

Probably one of the most difficult questions which Admiral Rous ever had to deal with is that which has come to be known as "reciprocity in racing." Until within the last fifteen years the superiority of the English racehorse was one of the cardinal doctrines of every Englishman's faith; and Admiral Rous, of all men in the world, would have been the last to admit the possibility of the time ever coming when this superiority would be called into question or overthrown. So much superior were the English horses believed to be that those bred out of the United Kingdom carried much less weight in racing, by way of putting them upon an equality with ours. It was found, however, that, competing under these conditions, they won so often as to make it certain that they were improving year by year, while, upon the other hand, certain English breeders took an

unfair advantage of the clause by sending their mares over to France just before foaling, so that they might be able to claim the "allowance" for their produce. It was accordingly resolved by the Jockey Club that this allowance should be done away with, and that for the future all horses, no matter from what country they came, should compete upon even terms. This did not arrest the victorious progress of the French, who won all the great three-year-old prizes of 1865 with Gladiateur, and who have since continued to secure many of the other valuable races in England. By the year 1874 their success had become so unmistakable that Admiral Rous made an official communication to the President of the French Société d'Encouragement, suggesting that in view of the improvement which his compatriots had effected in their breed of horses, the society which has the management of the principal race-meetings in France should open its prizes to English horses. It must be explained that whereas in England all races without distinction are open to horses of all countries in the world, most of the French races are limited to horses bred in that country; and it was this restriction which Admiral Rous asked Viscount Paul Daru to use his influence to get removed. The answer, gracious enough in form, was a very unsatisfactory one, for the Société d'Encouragement, which consists of the leading members of the French Jockey Club, pleaded that they were prevented by their statutes from making the proposed change. This was very much the same as if the English Government, urged to effect some reform-say in the licensing system—were to reply that they were prevented by the Acts of previous parliaments from introducing any measure of reform. Those who make laws—the laws of racing as well as those of the country—can unmake them as well, and the answer to Admiral Rous's courteous request was a singularly insufficient one. However, the matter was allowed to drop for a time, but it was taken up again in 1876 by Lord Falmouth, who was, perhaps, in a better position than any of his colleagues to deal with such a subject. Lord Falmouth has a conscientious objection to letting his horses run on Sunday, and as nearly all the French races are decided on that day, he would not derive any personal benefit from the change which he advocated. Thus he stood forth as being quite disinterested in the matter, and such being the case, it is singular that he should have been overwhelmed with obloquy by several French writers, who ascribe his motion to jealousy, and all sorts of unworthy motives. There has been a great diversity of opinion expressed upon the matter here in England, and, what is perhaps the most remarkable eircumstance in the ease, Admiral Rous, who made a proposal to much the same effect in 1875, was one of those who came forward to oppose him. No change has occurred in the situation since Admiral-Rous made his proposal to the Société d'Encouragement, except that the victories of the French horses have been more frequent than before; and it is difficult to understand how a measure which was expedient in 1874 should have become objectionable in 1877. It may well be that Lord Falmouth's motion, if it were successful, would do nothing to arrest that deterioration of the British thoroughbred which so many impartial critics believe to be making fresh progress every year; but upon the simple ground of give and take the French have no reasons for refusing to let us compete for their hundreds when they are allowed to run for our thousands; and whether the motion be called for by present eircumstances or not, there can be no doubt that the mere fact of its being proposed by so good a sportsman as Lord Falmouth is a sign of the times. Admiral Rous, with his natural generosity, would not have the English Jockey Club insist upon the reciprocity for which several of his colleagues were anxious, and his view of the matter was that it is of little eousequence what may be the nationality of the winning horse, because all the markets are open, and that we can buy animals bred abroad as easily as those bred in England when we want them. These are pretty much the grounds upon which he based his opposition to Lord Falmouth's proposal, and to

the similar ones standing in the names of Lord Vivian and Lord Hardwicke, and the letter in which he expressed his views was, like most of his published correspondence, terse and forcible, if not altogether convincing. It won him much favour in France, for our neighbours were delighted to have such an ally upon their side, and they counted upon his influence to defeat the measure when it came on for discussion. The Admiral's hale figure was not very familiar upon the other side of the Channel, for, whether from want of time or from lack of inclination, he rarely patronised French race-courses, and it is creditable to his vigilance and judgment as a handicapper that, despite the disadvantage of not seeing them run, he rarely let the French horses off with too light a weight. The French themselves were wont to declare even that he was too severe upon them; but that may merely have been meant as a cunning device for getting on his blind side for some future occasion. If so, it was not likely to succeed, for, as we have said, the Admiral was not easily caught napping.

In the early part of June, 1877, Admiral Rous was attacked by a severe illness, from which, though he rallied for a few days, he never recovered; and the announcement of his death, which occurred at his residence in Berkeley Square, London, on the 19th of that month, was received with general regret.

This illustrious specimen of the English seaman in the age which knew not steam nor iron, and of the sportsman who never sullied his fair fame by a single act which the sternest critic of morality could impugn, has not lived to carry out the reforms which must come, and that very soon; but all must hope that under his successor, or successors, whoever they may be, Newmarket may remain what it was under his sway—the Mecca towards which the faces of all racing men turn, in whatever part of the habitable globe they have their abode. With the exceptions mentioned above, we may apply to Admiral Rous the words which he, disdaining the pretended humility of little minds, once used of himself, "Whatever he has touched has flourished."





John Subenty

SIR JOHN LUBBOCK, BART M.P.

THAT he wrete "very well for a banker" was one of the exquisite sucers which a Quarterly I reviewer bestowed on the author of the "Pleasures of Memory." As a matter of fact, Samuel Rogers, for banker in question, wrote rather better than John Wilson Croker, the critic who thought he didn't; but the reservation was peculiarly characteristic of a prejudice not yet Sir Arthur Helps puts it in a pleasanter way when he advises his readers not to cultivate assess if they arm at writing odes, for it will be hard for them to persuade many people that the see on half wall. We live in a world of dull men, who, meting others in their own assessed his very directed at the existence of what Dr. Johnson, in his ponderous way, called " management people." Accordingly, it was difficult to convince the readers of poetry that a middleaged gentleman who had during all his previous life revelled in serried rows of figures, and been skilful in calculating exchanges, margins, and discounts, could write verse as skilfully as he who had only devoted the idle hours of an idle life to it. Even yet biographers will insist that the breakfasts of Samuel Rogers were much better than his books. Be that as it may, in spite of the example of Grote the banker proving himself the greatest of the historians of Greece, Francis Bailey the stockbroker being known as an eminent astronomer, and Ricardo, of the same profession, ranking as one of the founders of English political economy, it required a little time for the specialists of Burlington House to believe that the head of a Lombard Street banking firm could write treatises on astronomy, and compile star atlases, with all the constellations where they should be. It was even for a time doubtful whether this banker's son could at once be a good man of business and yet a zoologist, ethnologist, and archaeologist, and at the same time prominent at Quarter Sessions, and a gentleman safe to catch the Speaker's eye and retain the ear of the magnates of St. Stephen's. However, it is now settled that Sir John Lubbock writes not only "very well for a banker," but that even in the specialities of specialists he is no amateur. In a word, he is a standing proof that an industrious man of active mind may at once be diligent in business while serving Science.

Sir John William Lubbock—the third baronet of that name—of Mitcham Grove, Surrey, and High Elms, Kent, was the head of the banking firm of Robarts, Lubbock, & Co. He was for many years Treasurer and Vice-President of the Royal Society, and a well-known astronomical and mathematical writer. His works on the "Lamar Theory," "Perturbation of the Planets," "Researches on the Tides," the "Theory of Probabilities," and numerous other publications are still quoted as authorities. Indeed, his treatise on "Probabilities" authorities of any poor that of Quetelet, and being published anonymously was long ascribed to Augustus De Margar, a telling proof of its value to all who knew anything of the subtle mind of the law Probabilities of Mathematics in University College. His son, the present baronet, the subject of the law Probabilities was born at 29, Eaton Square, London, on the 30th April, 1884.



SIR JOHN LUBBOCK, BART, M.P.

THAT he wrote "very well for a banker" was one of the exquisite sneers which a Quarterly reviewer bestowed on the author of the "Pleasures of Memory." As a matter of fact, Samuel Rogers, the banker in question, wrote rather better than John Wilson Croker, the critic who thought he didn't; but the reservation was peculiarly characteristic of a prejudice not yet Sir Arthur Helps puts it in a pleasanter way when he advises his readers not to cultivate oysters if they aim at writing odes, for it will be hard for them to persuade many people that they can do both well. We live in a world of dull men, who, meting others in their own measure, are very incredulous of the existence of what Dr. Johnson, in his ponderous way, called "omniscious people." Accordingly, it was difficult to convince the readers of poetry that a middleaged gentleman who had during all his previous life revelled in serried rows of figures, and been skilful in calculating exchanges, margins, and discounts, could write verse as skilfully as he who had only devoted the idle hours of an idle life to it. Even yet biographers will insist that the breakfasts of Samuel Rogers were much better than his books. Be that as it may, in spite of the example of Grote the banker proving himself the greatest of the historians of Greece, Francis Bailey the stockbroker being known as an eminent astronomer, and Ricardo, of the same profession, ranking as one of the founders of English political economy, it required a little time for the specialists of Burlington House to believe that the head of a Lombard Street banking firm could write treatises on astronomy, and compile star atlases, with all the constellations where they should be. It was even for a time doubtful whether this banker's son could at once be a good man of business and yet a zoologist, ethnologist, and archæologist, and at the same time prominent at Quarter Sessions, and a gentleman safe to catch the Speaker's eye and retain the ear of the magnates of St. Stephen's. However, it is now settled that Sir John Lubbock writes not only "very well for a banker," but that even in the specialities of specialists he is no amateur. In a word, he is a standing proof that an industrious man of active mind may at once be diligent in business while serving Science.

Sir John William Lubbock—the third baronet of that name—of Mitcham Grove, Surrey, and High Elms, Kent, was the head of the banking firm of Robarts, Lubbock, & Co. He was for many years Treasurer and Vice-President of the Royal Society, and a well-known astronomical and mathematical writer. His works on the "Lunar Theory," "Perturbation of the Planets," "Researches on the Tides," the "Theory of Probabilities," and numerous other publications, are still quoted as authorities. Indeed, his treatise on "Probabilities" anticipated by many years that of Quetelet, and being published anonymously was long ascribed to Augustus De Morgan, a telling proof of its value to all who knew anything of the subtle mind of the late Professor of Mathematics in University College. His son, the present baronet, the subject of our sketch, was born at 29, Eaton Square, London, on the 30th April, 1834.

His early education was received in private, but in due time he passed to Eton, where among his contemporaries were the Earl of Dalkeith, Lord Grey de Wilton, Mr. Lefevre, and Mr. Chitty, Q.C. His classical tutor was Dr. Birch, whose instruction was so efficacious that had his pupil left for the University, there is little doubt that he would have as much distinguished himself on the "Ancient" as he has on the "Modern" side of latter day thought. Young Lubbook was not, however, destined to inscribe his name in the books of any university as an undergraduate; for at fourteeu he was taken from school, and entered in the bank in Lombard Street, the sudden illness of his father's two partners rendering it necessary that the Eton boy should without loss of time learn the intricacies of that business, of which he might at any day be called upon to take the control. A knowledge of the mysteries of finance does not come intuitively, and accordingly Mr. Lubbock seated himself on a three-legged stool, and, content to forget Eton and the pleasant Windsor woods, set himself to imbibe the art of banking in that murky city atmosphere, where, since 1772, the Lubbocks had been men of might. His leisure he passed at High Elms, the family seat, near Farnborough, in Kent, a goodly mansion in the midst of au estate of 1,400 acres, which had been purchased by his grandfather. Natural history pursuits filled up his time, while many hours were devoted every week to supplement that education of which at best the foundations only are laid at school and college, leaving the superstructure to be built up without the aid of tutors and governors. however, still claimed the youthful squire's attention. He aimed at being not a mere dilettante, skilful at drawing dividends, but unable to earn or to increase them, but the "complete man of business." Under the circumstances above mentioned, he was compelled to take a responsible part in the business at a very early age. In the year 1856 he married Miss Ellen Frances, daughter of the Rev. Peter Hordern, of Chorlton-eum-Hardy, Laneashire, by whom he has three sons and three daughters. In 1865 his father died, and he succeeded to the baronetey, which was created in 1808, in favour of his great great uncle. In the year 1870 he was elected to Parliament for Maidstone, and has since then devoted his time to the varied duties of a country gentleman, a borough member, a banker, and a leading member of various learned societies, to whose Transactions he has been an indefatigable contributor. The University of London, of which he is Vice-Chaneellor, also claims much of his attention. The labours of a man who has been and is still engaged in work so varied in kind require to be considered in a more systematic form than a mere biographical narrative admits. The life of a working savant, banker, and country gentleman cannot be expected to contain much sensational detail. If it be not true of him, like the rural clergyman of whom Goldsmith wrote, that-

> "Remote from towns he ran his godly race, Nor e'er had changed, nor wished to change, his place."

—his eareer eannot be a very startling one, especially if he has not been a traveller, and is a man of wealth and peace, to whom struggles for bread or for place are unknown. Sir John Lubbock's biography will furnish no exception. Still as a specimen of what a diligent man, endowed with good brains and fair opportunities, can accomplish while still on the sunny side of his uinth lustrum, an examination of his triune life as banker, publicist, and naturalist is not uninstructive. That a wealthy banker should become a member of Parliament is in no way surprising. Unto the rich men are the fat things of fair England. A brewer or a banker out of Parliament is a more remarkable phenomenon than one in it. To be a distinguished senator is, however, more exceptional. The audience in St. Stephen's is usually more critical

than the noisy "many-headed mob" who face the successful candidate on the hustings. That a country gentleman should take to studying birds and beasts is exceedingly natural. He would indeed be preternaturally dull if he did not, even though it were only like the enthusiastic foxhunter in Punch, to execrate "the stinking violets," that threw the hounds off the scent. The squires who have affixed F.R.S. or F.L.S. to their names are, nevertheless, easily numbered, for the bucolic zoologist rarely goes beyond the bird-stuffing stage of study. Sir John Lubboek has, however, the distinction of being almost equally distinguished as a banker, a naturalist, an anthropologist, and what the old writers called a "Parliament man." His name is as familiar to the ethnologists and entomologists of New York or of Moscow as it is in the counting-houses on the banks of that Pactolus which flows around the Bank of England, or among the lusty Maidstone liberals, who every four or five years temporarily lose their voices with erying, "Sir John and liberty!" Most eurious of all, the cause of this reputation in one eirele is little known to those in the other two. The Kentish rustics may know that "the Squire" is fond of looking at queer things, and the bankers may have sometimes listened to him at the Royal Institution or in Parliament; but each set of men judges their many-sided friend by their own standard, and in each department he has rendered services which ought to command the respect in which he is indubitably held. Let us first examine his banking—in other words, his professional eareer.

A private banking firm that has flourished for more than a century must have its roots deep in the soil of Lombard Street. With its "turn over" and its profits we have nothing to do. "Robarts" publish no balance sheet, nor is it any body's business to ask after their affairs, or who the partners are. We have only to concern ourselves with one of them, and to say that "Robarts" has not decreased in stability since the present baronet presided over its affairs. He has, however, done more; he has introduced the system of Country Clearing, which has done so much to abridge the mechanical labour of bankers' clerks, and of course, therefore, to facilitate business. Let us explain this as clearly as it is possible. The Clearing House has long been an institution among the London bankers, simply for collecting the proceeds of the cheques paid in by their customers with greater facility than sending round to the various banks and getting the money over the counter, and in their turn having all the labour of paying to other bankers' messengers the charges drawn on them. All this is very simply and expeditiously accomplished through the Clearing House, which is near the post office in Lombard Street. In this building there are as many desks as there are City bankers, and on each drawer is the name of the banker. A clerk going with a charge of £999,000 perhaps, upon all the other bankers, puts the cheques on to their respective desks. There are two such clearings; the one in the morning, the other in the afternoon. After four, no more cheques are received. The cheques of the other bankers on his own bank are meanwhile placed on his desk, and these amount, say, collectively to £1,000,000; consequently, he has the sum of £1,000, the difference, to pay. He gives the Inspector a draft on the Bank of England; or, if he has to receive, the Inspector gives him one. There is a special account at the Bank of England for this; and as, of course, the amount which some have to receive must be the same as that which others have to pay, this account balances itself each day. By the efforts of Sir John Lubbock this system of clearing was further extended by including the country bankers. The principle of the "Country Clearing" is that all eheques instead of being sent separately by post to the banks on which they are drawn, are forwarded together to London. Thus a country bank, taking in the course of the day say 200 cheques drawn on perhaps 100 bankers scattered all over the

country, had of course to write 100 separate letters; now the cheques all come to London, and are thence dispatched in batches to their destinations—a great saving of labour. John's attention was first directed to this important question on analysing the business of his own bank. During the last few days of 1864, about £30,000,000 passed through the firm's hands, and after going over the respective items of clearing checks, bills, bank-notes, and coin, he found that of each £200,000 about £150,000 passed through the Clearing House. Babbage had no doubt originally called attention to this question, but to Lubbock is due the extra credit of working it out, and by dint of indefatigable exertions carrying this great public benefit into effect. The amount passing daily through this channel of the Clearing House is enormous. On a Stock Exchange settling day in 1876, it amounted to £45,832,000. For the year ending April 30th, 1876, the total was £5,407,243,000; and for 1875, £6,013,299,000. Another service rendered to his profession by Sir John Lubbock, was a method of examination for clerks, conducted by the City of London College, for the bankers and joint stock companies, in the same manner as those instituted by Government under the Civil Service Commissioners. He is also Honorary Secretary to the London Association of Bankers. The duties of this office are multifarious and sometimes onerous. He represents the London bankers on questions relating to Government in Parliament, and indeed whenever there is a necessity for a medium to connect Downing Street and Lombard Street. The secretary has also to keep the records of the meetings of the association, and is in addition secretary of all committees, controls the internal arrangements of the Clearing House, &c. &c. We may add that Sir John has contributed many valuable papers to financial literature; and was a member of the International Coinage Commission appointed by Government. It is sometimes said that the life of the head of a well-established business like that of an old banking firm is simply routine, and calls for little exertion on the part of the controlling mind. This is an error. It requires a calm, patient, hard head. Any "brain doctor," can tellof that slow softening disease which above all attacks the anxious-looking men who congregate about the Stock Exchange, and which, for want of a better name, Dr. Andrew Wynter has called the "Capel Court Disease." The question is whether the dealer in money should, after his day's labour, relax himself by amusements of the usual type, by prolonged sleep, or by turning to studies far aside from the ordinary ones of his daily professional life? This question Sir John Lubbock has answered to good purpose, by becoming first naturalist and then statesman. Perhaps it may be more convenient to consider him in the latter of these capacities first.

When Sir John first showed signs that he was not insensible to the attraction of Parliamentary distinction, there were many of his scientific friends who wished that he had remained faithful to his first love. They not unnaturally—believing in the "ode and oyster" theory—considered that it was just possible that Parliament might not gain much in the untried senator, while it was almost certain that zoology and archæology would lose a good deal. Moreover, as the "independent member" is practically a cipher for good or evil, it was feared that Sir John would, while possessing a mind capable of better things, necessarily "to party give up what was meant for mankind." In 1865 he stood for West Kent, at the request of the Liberal committee, and was only beaten by fifty. In 1868, he was nominated as a Liberal candidate for the representation of the University of London, backed by a committee composed of such men as Airy, Babbage, Darwin, Huxley, Lyell, Max Müller, Tyndall, and others, but he thought it better to leave the field open to Mr. Lowe, and stood, instead, again for West Kent, where he was defeated, as he had been in 1865. But in 1870 he was elected for the borough of Maidstone,

Mr. White being his Conservative opponent. In 1874 he was again returned in a still keener though good-natured contest with Major Ross and Colonel Stanley as his rivals. Sir John soon showed that he was not to be that useful, though undistinguished, personage—the silent member. The same ambition has been manifested by most members of the council of the nation, but not always with success. Out of 656 select men there must always—and Parliament would be intolerable were it otherwise-be a majority who must be content with serving the country in committees, and their party by their votes. Not a great number even attempt the introduction of a Bill, a still smaller number succeed in getting one through a second reading, while the number of private members under whose guidance a Bill becomes an Aet may be counted by a very moderate arithmetician. Accordingly, when we consider that the following measures were piloted through the House of Commons by Sir John Lubbock, he may be ranked as a successful member of Parliament:-(1) "The Apotheearies' Company Medical Act Amendment Bill;" (2) *"The Bank Holiday Bill;" (3) "The Falsification of Accounts Bill;" (4) "The Bankers' Book Evidence Bill;" (5) "The College of Surgeons Medical Act Amendment Bill;" (6) "The University of London Medical Act Amendment Bill;" and (7) "The Absconding Debtors Bill." All of these Acts have a practical bearing on every-day life, and show the stand Sir John has taken in Parliament, viz .- as the elected member for Maidstone, and the representative by an unrecorded vote, of science and the banking interest. The best known of all his bills is, however, that to which we have prefixed an asterisk. Of all the saints in his limited calendar there is assuredly one before which the wearied clerk presents many a grateful orison. name is "St. Lubbock," and he, perhaps, better deserves popular canonisation than a good number of others who have a mere pontifical claim to the dignity. He added four new statute holidays to those already in existence, with a result that has been in every way satisfactory both to employers and employés. In addition to these six measures, Sir John has introduced two or three others which he could not succeed in carrying, and the well-known "Ancient Monuments Bill," which has passed a second reading three times, but which, from the difficulty private members have in securing an opportunity for the consideration of their Bills, he has not as yet been able to carry further. It is intended to preserve the rude monuments of pre-historic times seattered over the British Islands, which are now threatened with destruction, either through earclessness, ignorance, or avarice. In these, though necessarily now existing as private property, the nation, which is the heir of the heirless men who built them, and has certainly a right to protect the books of a bookless age, surely has a birthright. It has been said that "private enlightenment" will aid in the preservation of these monuments. Unfortunately, it has not done so, as the numerous interesting pre-historic monuments either destroyed, or in course of destruction, only too painfully testify. Abbeys and old eastles are usually allowed to stand, either because their beauty is patent to the bueolic eye, or more frequently because, like a coat of rusty mail, a tattered banner, and a "banshee," may be they are proofs presumptive that the proprietor possessed a grandfather as well as a manor. Even this has not always acted as a deterrent to sacrilegious hands, while the rude monuments of the forgotten men are often destroyed merely for the sake of the few shillings the stones or earth will bring. The principle of the Bill is, to use the author's words, "that if the owner of one of these ancient monuments wishes to destroy it, he should be required, before doing so, to give the nation the option of purchase at a fair price." For this purpose the Act proposes to create a body of Commissioners especially charged with the protection of our ancient monuments, and one of the best proofs of its value is that perhaps every archæological society in the kingdom petitioned for the passage of the Bill. Doubtless

in time it will become law, just in the same way as similar legislative enactments exist for the same purpose in other countries, the objections to it being of the most puerile character; for instance, that the people who erected the monuments were savages, about whom no one cares, or at least should care; that the monuments themselves are ignoble and destitute of all art and of everything that entitles them to preservation; and, above all, that to preserve them was "to seriously interfere with the rights of property."

Sir John Lubbock cannot be called an orator. He wants that pertinacity in debate and self-sufficient flow of words begot in the arena of the "Union," or the more turgid ad captandum eloquence of the gentlemen who have graduated in St. Stephen's from the stormy school of a vestry or a town council. He speaks just as he lectures to a scientific or semi-scientific audience, like a man of business, saying what he has to say in the simplest manner, and with the fewest necessary words, relying more on the justice of his cause than on the chance of securing a snapvote by the aid of florid rhetoric. Yet he is a man deservedly respected in the House, and safe of an audience, even though his contributions to Parliamentary talk do not fill so many pages of "Hansard" as those of some of the gentlemen sitting "below the gangway." It may be necessary to state that Sir John is what, with unnecessary euphemism, is styled "an advanced Liberal" —that is to say, not a Whig, which, being interpreted, is a Tory writ small. Before closing this sketch of Sir John Lubbock's public life, we ought to add that he was nominated by the Crown a member of the senate of the University of London, and that he is now, and has been for some years, Vice-Chancellor of the same institution; that he was a member of the Public School Commission, and of the Royal Commission for the Advancement of Science, besides taking his fair share of the work of those Parliamentary committees which are of such small account in public esteem, and yet occupy so much of the member's time. As a magistrate and country gentleman, Sir John also takes an active part in most of the varied duties incumbent on an English landowner. His political writings are not so numerous as his scientific; but not long since he appeared as a publicist in a memoir on the "Imperial Policy of Great Britain," which has excited much favourable comment in the Press.

Science was one of the earliest, as it is one of the most constant, of Sir John's loves. Of banking he knew practically nothing until he was fourteen, while his name was not on the rolls of Parliament until he was a man of thirty-six. But he was a naturalist in his very childhood. His taste in this direction was carefully nurtured by his father, who was accordingly very glad when Mr. Darwin settled as his near neighbour at Down. From that day forward he was a pupil of the great master, and it is almost unnecessary to add, became one of his most ardent disciples. His researches in zoology have been almost confined to the development, habits, and structure of the lower animals, chiefly insects and crustacea, in which he has made numerous discoveries, duly recorded in various scientific journals, and the Transactions of the Royal, Linnean, and other learned societies. He has also published an elaborate treatise on one of the obscure groups of insects, under the title of a "Monograph of the Thysanura and Collembola" (Ray Society, 1873). He has, besides, also devoted attention to the connection of insects and plants, more especially as to the manner in which the former fertilise the latter by carrying the pollen from flower to flower while in search of food. Sir John's observations may be found in a popular form in "Wild Flowers, considered in Relation to Insects," and in "The Origin and Metamorphoses of Insects." Of late he has devoted much time, with the aid of his family, to observing the habits of insects, with some interesting and unexpected results. Wasps, bees, and ants have been the subject of his lectures before the British Association and the Royal Institution,

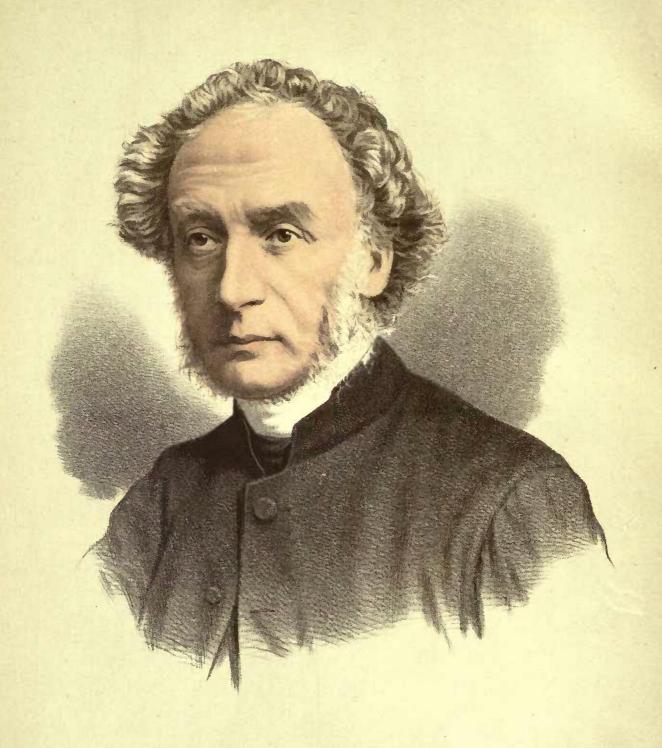
These discourses, independently of their value as actual additions to human knowledge, have been productive of greater attention being paid to the biological history of the orders in question, and may thus prove reproductive as all true science is. Sir John, however, soon began to enlarge the sphere, of his observations, and to make prolonged excursions into other domains of science. This must necessarily follow, if science is to be anything but a mere unarranged mass of facts, tumbled down by the hodmen, and wanting an architect to come and rear them into a fair structure. The object of all natural history study is to discover laws, and the end of all this accumulation of facts is to find a road through the wilderness of data. Now the error of most theorists is that they draw their conclusions from too narrow premises, but being ignorant of other departments of science, are unable to bring sufficiently varied knowledge to bear on the questions under discussion, or to see the connecting links between one division of the study and another. No doubt science is now so extensive that those who would make themselves masters in any one branch of knowledge must devote a lifetime to it. But at the same time there is no reason why a zoologist should pride himself on being ignorant of botany, or a geologist on not knowing one chemical element from another. Sir John Lubboek accordingly began to add archaeology to his other studies. He examined the curious shell mounds on the coast of Denmark, known as "Kjökkenmöddinger," or kitchen refuse heaps (Scotice "Middens"), to which attention had originally been called by Steenstrup and other Danish antiquaries, and was the first to make English readers acquainted with these rude remnants of the ancient Scandinavian savages. He also studied the gravels of the Somme from Amiens to the sea, in search of pre-historic remains, and explored the bone caves of Dordogne, the lake dwellings of Switzerland, and numerous public and private museums with archæological zeal. These researches were the subject of various memoirs in the Natural History Review and elsewhere, and were finally collected, with many additions, and published under the title of "Pre-historic Times as Illustrated by Ancient Remains, and the Manners and Customs of Modern Savages" (3rd Edition, 1870). His reading in the literature relating to modern savagedom, led him to a consideration of the origin of civilisation, and how customs, once all but universal in the boyhood-or rather the babyhood-of the world, became altered or narrowed down to the few rude tribes who may now alone possess them. These inquiries were originally given to the Royal Institution in the spring of IS6S, and were afterwards greatly enlarged, and published in "The Origin of Civilisation and the Primitive Condition of Man" (1870), which has passed through three editions, and, like his former work on pre-historic man, has been translated into several languages, including French, German, Italian, Danish, Russian, Dutch, and Swedish. It has also gone through two American editions, and given rise to great controversy, some of the more strikingly novel of the views being, as might be expected, not universally accepted. It is probably the greatest of Lubbock's works, though in some of his conclusions he has been forestalled, and has even occasionally shown a tendency to seek facts to support what look like foregone conclusions. The labour it cost the author must have been enormous. The mere list of authorities consulted would fill the space of this sketch. It is accordingly, aside from the theories it enunciates, most serviceable as a work of reference, and offers an almost Teutonically exhaustive array of facts which it would be nearly impossible for any single student to obtain for himself. In this work the Darwinian doctrine is applied in tracing the development of the social and mental condition of savages, their arts, their system of marriage and of relationship, their religions, languages, moral character, and laws. It is, moreover, a hopeful work. He believes that "the law of humanity is not degeneracy, but progression; not the falling away from a primitive state of perfection, but the gradual amelioration and advance towards a higher

and better condition." These books are, however, but a small portion of Sir John Lubbock's works. The labours of the man of science are often the hardest when of the least bulk. In the Transactions of learned societies, and in the scientific and antiquarian journals, will be found upwards of sixty memoirs, great and small, by the indefatigable toiler whose life we have sketched. Even a record of these "papers" does not include all his work. As a simple labour of love he has edited from the original MS. the nonagenarian Svend Nilsson's treatise on "The Stone Age of Sweden"—a country where the name of "Sir Lubbock" is very familiar to his collaborateurs. Nothing but the most indefatigable industry and economy of time could have accomplished this prodigious amount of varied work by a man little over forty. He has always been an early riser, and contrives whenever possible to get three or four hours' work in the morning before breakfast. His career is an example of what can be accomplished in a life well spent. No doubt in Sir John Lubboek's case there were many adventitious advantages which poorer men do not possess. He had no anxiety as to bread; but, on the other hand, he does as much mechanical work every day as would entitle him to a very fair return for his labours. Moreover, the calls of his present position make inroads on his time of which the man who is his own master by reason of living in the byways of the world has little idea.

Having now recorded Sir John Lubbock's chief services to the world, it only remains to mention the intangible rewards which the world has given in return. He is, as we have already said, Vice-Chancellor of the University of London, an Oxford Doctor of Civil Law, a Fellow of the Royal, Linnean, Geographical, Geological, and Antiquarian Societies; he has been President of the Ethnological Society, of its successor, the Anthropological Institute of Great Britain, and of the Entomological Society. He has also been Vice-President of the British Association, and of the Royal and Linnean Societies, and is an honorary member of more small home and great foreign societies than we have space to give the names of.

[The Pertrait prefixed to this Memoir is copied, by permission, from a Photograph by the London Stereoscopic Company.]



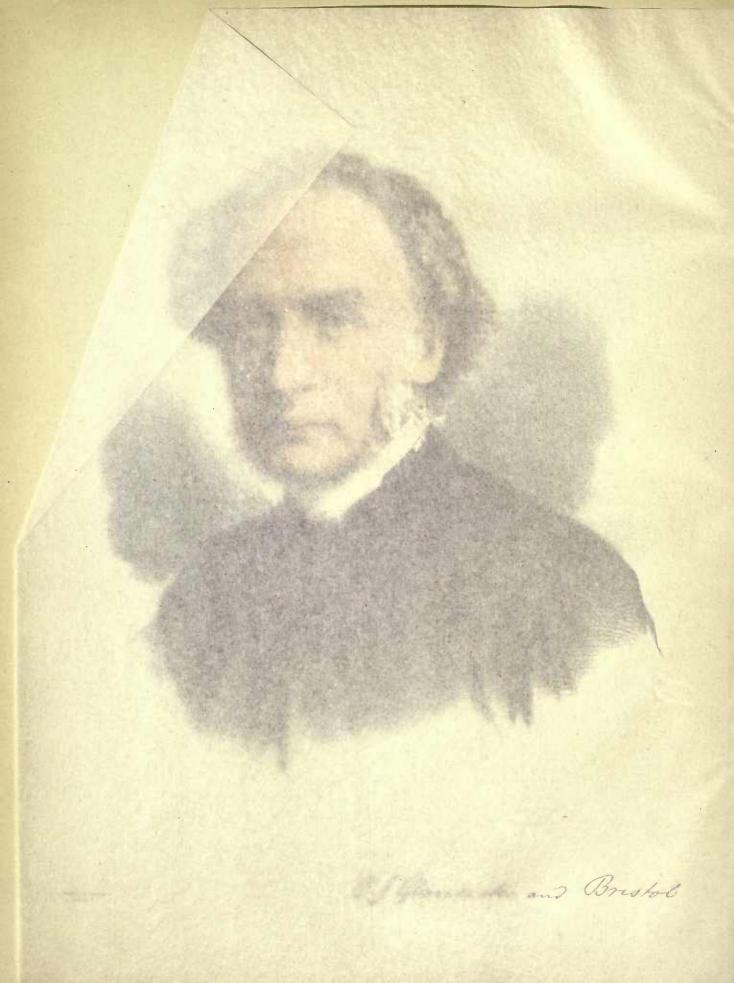


C.J. Gloveester and Bristol

THE BISHOP OF GLOUCESTER AND BRISTOL.

ONE of the best criticisms ever passed upon the present Bench of Bishapa was and meant to be altogether kindly. The critic said that, though it was a good working beach, yet, it was not a brilliant one. Now, without conceding the latter clause of this judgment, we may contend that the former, though meant in disparagement, is really the highest greenium that can be passed upon the bishops of any period or the episcopate of any individual. What is wanted in the overseers—such is the import of the title—of a Church, surely is that they shall connectes be able master-workmen, and so qualified in the best possible way to superintend the work of others over whom they are placed in the gradations of the Christian ministry. Of course any other gifts that may be added are of use, and can be applied to the highest of all purposes; but here we have the fundamental requirement, without which all else is valueless. To mention, then, in a tone of depreciation that which really constitutes the key to efficiency, is simply childish. In the sphere to which we are introduced by the subject of our present sketch, we shall have to notice other gifts as well; but we are quite content to accept as the basis of our pen-and-ink portrait the idea of a good "working" bishop.

Charles John Efficient for we trace the Bishop's biography back to a period before even the conventional title of "Mr." belongs to him) is a native of the county of Rutland, having been born on St. Mark's Day of the year 1819 in the rectory-house of the parish of Whitwell, between Stamford and Oaklaan, where his father was incumbent. In the quiet, old-fashioned village, known as Witeville in Saxon times, and belonging to Clerkenwell Priory, the early youth of our future dignitary was passed; and in due course of time he went to the county school at Oakham, then under the head-mastership of Dr. Doneaster, a pedagogue of some note in his time, full of the ancient traditions of his office, yet with a fair amount of scholarship. Here he was contemporary with another prelate, Dr. Atlay, Bishop of Hereford, son of a neighbouring clergyman in the same county, and with whom his own history ran, for some time, in a groove curiously parallel. After a sojourn of three years at Oakham, young Ellicott migrated to Stamford Grammar School, where he remained until 1837; and then, having assumed the toga virilis, he developed into the University "man," and entered at St. John's College, Cambridge-a fitting sphere for one who was destined to join the ranks of the episcopate as a "working" bishop, for the traditions of the Johnians have ever been in the direction of industry. The annals of Mr. Elieuti's student-life were adapted to honour the college with which his name was to be associated. Before he had emerged from his condition of freshman he gained the Bell Scholarwhite. This is an incipient academical dignity open to undergraduates in their first year, awarded, schare personal merits are equal, to those who stand in need of assistance (and Whitwell is down in the books at little over £300 per annum only, with a population of 100). The scholar, too, has to declare, in writing, that he will go on regularly to his degree. The Bell Scholar is, therefore,



THE BISHOP OF GLOUCESTER AND BRISTOL.

NE of the best criticisms ever passed upon the present Bench of Bishops was not meant to be altogether kindly. The critic said that, though it was a good working bench, yet it was not a brilliant one. Now, without conceding the latter clause of this judgment, we may contend that the former, though meant in disparagement, is really the highest encomium that can be passed upon the bishops of any period or the episcopate of any individual. What is wanted in the overseers—such is the import of the title—of a Church, surely is that they shall themselves be able master-workmen, and so qualified in the best possible way to superintend the work of others over whom they are placed in the gradations of the Christian ministry. Of course any other gifts that may be added are of use, and can be applied to the highest of all purposes; but here we have the fundamental requirement, without which all else is valueless. To mention, then, in a tone of depreciation that which really constitutes the key to efficiency, is simply childish. In the sphere to which we are introduced by the subject of our present sketch, we shall have to notice other gifts as well; but we are quite content to accept as the basis of our pen-aud-ink portrait the idea of a good "working" bishop.

Charles John Ellicott (for we trace the Bishop's biography back to a period before even the conventional title of "Mr." belongs to him) is a native of the county of Rutland, having been born on St. Mark's Day of the year 1819 in the rectory-house of the parish of Whitwell, between Stamford and Oakham, where his father was incumbent. In the quiet, old-fashioned village, known as Witeville in Saxon times, and belonging to Clerkenwell Priory, the early youth of our future dignitary was passed; and in due course of time he went to the county school at Oakham, then under the head-mastership of Dr. Doncaster, a pedagogue of some note in his time, full of the ancient traditions of his office, yet with a fair amount of scholarship. Here he was contemporary with another prelate, Dr. Atlay, Bishop of Hereford, son of a neighbouring clergyman in the same county, and with whom his own history ran, for some time, in a groove curiously parallel. After a sojourn of three years at Oakham, young Ellicott migrated to Stamford Grammar School, where he remained until 1837; and then, having assumed the toga virilis, he developed into the University "man," and entered at St. John's College, Cambridge—a fitting sphere for one who was destined to join the ranks of the episcopate as a "working" bishop, for the traditions of the Johnians have ever been in the direction of industry. The annals of Mr. Ellicott's student-life were adapted to honour the college with which his name was to be associated. Before he had emerged from his condition of freshman he gained the Bell Scholarship. This is an incipient academical dignity open to undergraduates in their first year, awarded, where personal merits are equal, to those who stand in need of assistance (and Whitwell is down in the books at little over £300 per annum only, with a population of 100). The scholar, too, has to declare, in writing, that he will go on regularly to his degree. The Bell Scholar is, therefore, a predestined "workman." If any scholar shall "degrade or determine and go out in a bye term, or declare for law, or be rusticated or expelled, his scholarship shall be ipso facto vacant." Provided none of these contingencies occur, the emoluments continue for four years. Even so, however, the Bell Scholarship is hampered by some odd conditions. No person shall ever have two sons Scholars, nor shall there be two orphan brothers Scholars on this foundation at the same time. This particular founder and benefactor was cautious, indeed, that there should be no academical pluralists among those to be hereafter benefited by his far-sighted munificence. Atlay preceded his former schoolmate as recipient of this distinction by one year; and among previous Bell Scholars we find some well-known names, such as Temple Chevallier, Connop Thirlwall, Charles Tennyson, and Henry Alford. Ellicott took his Bachelor of Arts degree in 1841, graduating as seventh Senior Optime (a position in which his friend Atlay again forestalled him by a year), and also appearing in the second class on the classical tripos. In the year 1844 he was elected Fellow of his college, and the next year was ordained by the Bishop of Ely. Amongst his academical distinctions may be mentioned the Hulsean Prize, in 1843, for an essay on the "Nature and Obligation of the Sabbath." Here again we find the line of the future Bishop curiously marked out by his early academical success. "The Evidences of Christianity" have formed the latest, as they formed almost the earliest, sphere in which the literary talents of the Bishop of Gloucester and Bristol have been exercised. He also gained one of the Members' Prizes—so called from being given by the representatives of the University in Parliament—the successful essay being one in Latin prose on the "Relation of Faith and Knowledge." Mr. Ellicott also published in these early days a mathematical work on "Analytical Statics." With the attainment of the Fellowship may be closed the record of a singularly industrious and very fairly successful University career. There have been (to refer once again to our anonymous critic) more brilliant tours de force, but seldom a more genuine instance of honest work issuing in honourable success of a sterling and substantial kind than Mr. Ellicott's University career.

From the academical we pass, by a natural and easy transition, to the pastoral work; for it is only as qualifying for this, in the case of a Christian minister, that University honours can be considered relevant to the real life-history. Having been, as we said, ordained deacon and priest by Dr. Turton, then Bishop of Ely, Mr. Ellicott did not elect to pass his days in the pleasant common-room of St. John's. We remember once hearing another of these self-constituted critics say, with a most portentous look, that Ellicott was "a mystic;" but our College Fellow did not, at all events, cloister himself as an academical cenebite out of the range of work. He took the curacy of Girton—a place now celebrated as being the residence of "fair girl-graduates with their golden hair." Here he acted as locum tenens for six months, during the absence of the incumbent, and so got into harness, and fleshed his maiden sword in the pulpit after a method not unbecoming the dignity of a Johnian Fellow. Then he broke what was new ground, by spending a summer in Norway. Everybody does Norway now, and some adventurous spirits even obey the advice to "try Lapland;" but it was not so in those unsophisticated days. College Fellows are free to come and go as the fabled knights-errant of old; and this sporting life in Scandinavia was a pleasant time of it for the young graduate, full of life and health, and fresh from his treatise on "Analytical Statics." He had exchanged statics for the time being in favour of dynamics. Next, by one of those pleasant coincidences which it would be hard to think chance, we find him gravitating back to the old home county again. He was appointed in 1848 to the rectory of Pilton, in Rutland, some four miles from Uppingham. Pilton is not exactly what may be called a "fat living," being set down at the modest income of £150 only. However, on this preferment the rector married in 1848, his wife being Constantia Ann, the only daughter of Admiral Becher, assistant hydrographer to the Admiralty. There is doubtless some occult law that induces College Fellows to make these hymeneal ventures, or their academical sinceures would never fall vacant save in the event of their death. Of this marriage there are three children living: one son, Arthur Becher, born in 1849, educated at Eton and Trinity College, Cambridge; a daughter, Florence, married in 1874 to Mr. J. Amory Travers, of Warnicombe Hill, Tiverton; and another daughter, unmarried at the date of the last issue of Debrett.

We now approach another phase in the history of Mr. Ellicott's intellectual life when first it developed definitely in the line of Scriptural exegesis. This has since become quite a specialty, and the commencement of the career dates back as far as the year 1854. At this time he published a Commentary on the Epistle to the Galatians, and gained success in the well-worked field, which has since been enriched by the labours of Deans Alford and Stanley. This was well received; and the success induced Mr. Ellicott to seek once more the congenial retirement of his Alma Mater, and devote himself to the study of that queen of sciences—theology. This picture of the married ex-Fellow cloistering himself in the old academic haunts is a pleasant nineteenth century version of the less attractive times when celibate students prisoned themselves in monastic cells, and devoted life to the Sacred Volume. Such, surely, is a graphic illustration of Keble's well-known lines:—

"We need not bid, for cloistered cell."
Our brethren and the world farewell."

The result of this temperary retirement was a series of Critical and Grammatical Commentaries on St. Paul's Epistles, published separately (all of which have gone through several editions)—namely, besides that on the Galatians in which the series originated, on the Epistles to the Ephesians, Philippians, Colossians, Philemon, Thessalonians, and the Pastoral Epistles. This withdrawal, which was accompanied by the resignation of his small preferment, extended over six years; but before the close of that period the value of his work had been recognised by his appointment to the professorship of the Exegesis of the New Testament in King's College, London, as successor to Dr. Treneh, successively Dean of Westminster and Archbishop of Dublin. He also wrote several of the articles on the Pauline Epistles in Dr. Smith's "Dictionary of the Bible." Some minds are fountains; others are reservoirs. Mr. Ellicott's—Professor Ellicott's, as we may now eall him—was essentially of the former order. It was a fountain giving forth not only sweet water, but water coming straight from the well of life itself.

Two other works, calling for more than a passing reference, also marked this period of learned retirement by the banks of the Cam. The first was that admirable course of sermons on "The Destiny of the Creature," preached before the University, and widely diffused since then among the circle of religious readers. They were delivered on different occasions during the years 1856-57, and are devoted to an explanation of that "Vanity" which forms the subject of the eighth chapter of St. Paul's Epistle to the Romans. On this subject, where, as on a horizon, the questions of science and Scripture blend, the preacher says, with much pertinence, and in a form which the scientists could not venture to ignore:—"I am old-fashioned enough to be fully persuaded that, if modern thinkers lent an ear to the express declarations of Inspiration as readily as they do to the deductions of philosophy—if we perused the Book of Life as studiously and as lovingly as we do the Book of Nature, our theology would be of a higher strain, and our philosophy no less attractive and veracious. I cannot forget that the father of Inductive

Philosophy was sincerely of the opinion that there were some questions which even science must be content to hand over to religion for their complete, or approximately complete, solution. Seience may teach us much, but when we gaze far into the past or far into the future, we must always observe that it signally fails us; we ever find that between the farthest point to which its deductions may help to lead us, and the beginning or the end, there is a chasm that cannot be bridged over."

The writer of the present memoir well recollects taking up, by one of those coincidences miscalled chance, this volume of sermons, while waiting in the library of King's College, and being fascinated by these words, which have lingered in his memory for many years:—"We know not what the world actually was, still we can form some inferences by observing what it is. Everywhere the same appearance of something that beclonds and darkens, everywhere the same traces of aberration from appointed ends, the same hints of perverted tendencies, the same tokens of frustration and decay. Even with the acknowledged phenomena of rapine and death in a pre-Adamite world borne steadily in view and made the most of in argument, set now before your eyes the scarcely doubtful instances of depravation of instincts, the exhibitions of wanton cruelty in the lower animals, the occasional glimpses of something worse than ferocity. Observe the mystery of the whole class of venomous reptiles. . . . Add all these things together, and then finally consider if there be anything really inconceivable in the thought that the effects of man's sin are to be traced in the material world; yea, that the whole creation has become subject to vanity owing to the rebellion of the suzerain, and is now, as the Apostle tells us, ever groaning and travailing in its alien and unnatural bondage."

The "Historical Lectures on the Life of our Lord" formed the Hulsean Lectures for 1859-60. The Rev. John Hulse, of Elworth, in the county of Chester, directed by his will, dated 1777, that the proceeds of certain estates should be given yearly to a dissertator and a lecturer who should "shew the evidence for revealed religion, and demonstrate the truth and excellence of Christianity." The discourses were to be twenty in number, but the Court of Chancery in 1830 reduced the number to eight. Of course the treatment of so vast a subject in a form so coneise must of necessity involve considerable abbreviation; but these lectures on the life of Christ are an admirable summary, and, before the appearance of Canon Farrar's larger work, formed perhaps the best-known popular treatise on a subject which until lately commanded strangely little attention. The chronological arrangement was clear and precise, the widening circles of the public ministry were graphically delineated, and there was an originality about some of the views which bespoke deep and reverent study, not only of the sacred records but of the latest results of contemporary criticism. As an instance of what is meant, one cannot do better than quote the explanation of the mysterious Noli me tangere addressed to Mary Magdalene by the risen Saviour:—"Relations are now changed. That holy body is the resurrection-body of the ascending Lord: the eager touch of a mere earthly love is now more than ever unbecoming and unmeet. With mysterions words full of holy dignity and majesty, yet at the same time of most tenderly implied consolation, the Lord bids her refrain." The author adds in a foot-note:-" The whole meaning, then, may be briefly expressed in the following paraphrase: 'Touch me not (with this touch of the past), for I have not yet entered into those relations in which I may truly be touched, though it will be with the equally loving but necessarily more reverent and spiritual touch of the future." He eoncludes this mysterious subject of the gradual ascension of Christ with a seasonable reference to the very striking sermons of Bishop Andrewes on the same topic,

In the year 1860, when he was appointed Hulsean Professor of Divinity at Cambridge, there occurred a catastrophe which very nearly brought the subject of this biography to what, humanly speaking, would have been called a premature end. A terrible railway accident occurred at the Tottenham station of the Great Eastern Railway. Owing to the tire of one of the enginewheels being shattered, the train left the rails, and became a complete wreek. Six persons were killed and many injured. Professor Ellicott was among the latter, having both legs fractured, besides being severely scalded on the head and arm. Yet, even in this pitiable condition, with a Christian chivalry worthy of a second Sidney, he administered spiritual consolations to those more fearfully mutilated than himself; and so rapid was his subsequent recovery, that by the next year he was able to enter upon his professorial work, which he commenced with a series of lectures on St. Luke. But Alma Mater was not to have him long, for, in the middle of the same year, the Professor was appointed by Lord Palmerston to the deanery of Exeter. Being (as we have said) a working bee in the clerical hive, he at first refused the dignity, perhaps sharing the popular idea that a deanery was a sort of catacomb where the living body was "shelved." On the consent of Bishop Philpotts, however, to the combination of a theological college with his decanal otium cum dignitate, he accepted the position, and became the first Principal of what proved a flourishing theological seminary, one of those exceedingly useful institutions which, in late years, have grown up under the shadow of several of our old cathedrals, and done good work by supplementing the intellectual training derived from the Universities by candidates for Holy Orders with definite theological teaching, and, in some instances, a foretaste of pastoral work. In Exeter, however, as in the Divinity Professor's chair at Cambridge, his sejourn was brief. He left the western city, bequeathing a legacy of pleasant remembrances in the shape of good work done amongst its inhabitants and students, and, in the year 1863, was consecrated in Canterbury Cathedral thirty-first Bishop of Gloucester and forty-seventh Bishop of Bristol. The two sees, each forming one of the six new ones created by Henry VIII. in 1541, were united in 1836. Lord Palmerston was again the discriminating patron who appointed to this important post one who had proved himself so emphatically a "working" Bishop in posse.

He was now Bishop in esse too; and, in the following year, succeeded, by the death of the Bishop of Ely, to a seat in the House of Lords. For some time his lordship took no part in public affairs, being busied in gaining a knowledge of his diocese. But, this end accomplished, he emerged once more into the light of day. We see him on the platform at the Bristol Congress claiming a hearing for that eccentric gentleman Mr. Lyne, who elects to array himself in Benedictine garb and to re-baptise himself Father Ignatius. But the new Bishop had no sympathy with Ritualism, though all courtesy for Ritualists. He claimed consideration for them in Convocation, but he withstood them to the face in Christian controversy. It was even whispered that the Bishop anticipated the present Public Worship Regulation Act with a scheme for bringing back these enthusiastic but erring sons of the Church to the good old Protestant lines of faith and practice. Lay agency obtained his warm approval; and, in more recent years, he has taken great interest in the revision of the Authorised Version of the New Testament. His lordship has published an excellent handbook on this subject, in which (p. 219) he summarises his views on the difficult and delicate subject of touching the text of Scripture in words which will commend themselves to every lover of the Bible, embodying, as they do, the very principle which was acted upon by the compilers of the Authorised Version itself. He says -and the italics are the Bishop's own:-"To sum up all, then, in a single sentence, we would respectfully and deferentially say to the learned and faithful men that will shortly [1870] address

themselves to this great undertaking—Do your work together; consider experience your truest guide; don't try to 'improve' our present Version, but be satisfied with correcting it; use the old words, and have an ear for the old rhythm; don't decide till afterthought has exercised its due influence; make the text better than the margin; and, lastly, follow the spirit of the old rules."

A work of usefulness to which this eminently versatile prelate has devoted his conspicuous talents is that of the Christian Evidence Society. This was established in the year 1870 to supply a want which-in the Bishop's own words-had long been felt by carnest and thoughtful persons, both Churchmen and Nonconformists, namely, that some combined attempt ought to be made to meet in fair argument the scepticism and unbelief which for the last few years have been distinctly traceable in all classes of society. It is indeed remarkable that, considering the many master-minds which it includes within its pale, the Christian Church-we use that expression, of course, in the same comprehensive way as the Bishop of Gloucester and Bristol himselfshould have been content for so long a time to assume a merely defensive attitude. It does so no longer. Headed, to a great extent, by this ideal of a Church militant Bishop, this Red Cross Knight of the nineteenth century, Christianity has spoiled the enemy's camp, and routed in detail the forces of Atheism, Pantheism, Positivism, and those many other isms which comprise the motley creed of Negation. "Modern Scepticism" is the title of the first volume of lectures issued under the auspices of the Society, and to which the words of the Bishop above quoted bear special reference. If the Society has not made the amount of progress desired by its wellwishers, it certainly has been for no lack of devotion on the part of its nursing father, the Lord Bishop of Gloucester and Bristol. A work by the Bishop, issued in 1877 by the Christian Knowledge Society, and forming a part of their Christian Evidence series, is in the same direction. This is a re-publication, with notes, of his Charge, delivered in the autumn of 1876, and is entitled "The Characteristics of Modern Unbelief."

Any review of the Bishop's works, however brief, would be incomplete which failed to notice the remarkable piece of destructive criticism supplied by his trenchant paper on "The Apperturbal Gospels" contributed to the "Cambridge Essays" of 1856. Interesting though these documents may be as monuments of Christian antiquity, the claim advanced by some eccentric persons of putting them anywhere near a level with the inspired writings, or conceding to them, in however remote a degree, the honoured title to which they lay claim by assuming the same name, is too preposterous to be admitted; and very strongly—too strongly, thinks the Edinburgh Review—does the Bishop protest against any concession of this claim. "They still keep turning up," he says, "among our unpublished manuscripts, they still engage the interests of laborious scholars, can beast of editors and commentators, form the themes for prize essays, and but very lately all of them that are in any degree entire have appeared with all the insignia of critical care and scrupulosity, with literary prolegomena, with diversities of readings, and the very diplomatic symbols that seem to belong almost exclusively to the sacred and venerable documents of which they are the caricature and travesty. Such tenacity of existence is yet more noticeable when we remember that their real demerits, their mendacities, their absurdities, their coarseness, the barbarities of their style, and the inconsequence of their narratives, have never been condoned. It would be hard to find any competent writer, in any age of the Church, who has been beguiled into saying anything civil or commendatory."

There was enough of the Boanerges element about this utterance, perhaps, to startle the serenity of an Edinburgh reviewer; but we cannot help feeling that it is the honest indignation of one who is mindful of the double promise he made not only to faithfully exercise himself in

the Holy Scriptures, but also, with all faithful diligence, to drive away all erroneous and strange doctrine contrary to God's word. It is this combined strength and suavity which, so far as a singularly versatile character can be summed up in a few words, constitute the Bishop's secret of success. Is not that same combination the key to the character of One who is the Shepherd and Bishop above all, and by the imitation of whom alone anything like perfection in human character can be attained? The same eyes that shed tears at the grave of Lazarus flashed with just resentment when the lips uttered that terrible denunciation: - "Woe unto you, scribes and Pharisees, hypocrites!" Latent power is by no means incompatible with tenderness; nay, very often the one is the surest guarantee of the other. We can scarcely conceive a finer instance of the reproduction in our own day and generation of the vital energies of old Christianity than the pieture of the poor bruised, maimed minister of Christ forgetting his own agony to minister to those who were lying around him in the same pitiable condition. We compared him just now to the dying hero of Zutphen; but his model was a far higher one, being no less than that of Calvary itself. Yet had one of those same sufferers, in the flush of health and strength, said one word in dishonour of that same Saviour whose footsteps he so faithfully sought to follow, who would have been more full of holy zeal in denouncing such dishonour than Bishop Ellicott? True chivalry, Christian as well as secular, has always this undercurrent of real masculine strength, though the womanly tenderness of a St. John lie on the surface.

And the singular power of adaptation strikes one, too, as a prominent feature in this character. We are seeking, for the moment, to forget the individuality of the model before us, and to sketch the portrait rather as that of an ideal bishop, the speculum episcopi for this critical and crucial century. Now, more than ever, the representative man of the Church must be made all things to all men, so that he may by all means save some. To this requirement our ideal bishop rises. Take an instance anywhere among his varied writings. lecture on the Sabbath, to wit, is no dry disquisition on the old Jewish arrangement, but one that comes fairly face to face with the real difficulties of the Sunday Question, and confidently grapples with them in detail. It would be of no use to bring a theology of different calibre than this to bear on the subject of Christian Evidences, or to engage in the most delicate of all questions, Biblical Revision. It must be a living, not a dead theology. One almost shrinks from using the term at all—only there is no other that will adequately replace it—because the abstract theology has come to have as old-fashioned and stereotyped a meaning as the concrete "divine," which has happily almost slipped out of usage, to characterise a elergyman. Dry folios and large tomes only serve to form a scholarly background to such a theology as Bishop Ellicott's. The pulpit, the platform, the professorial chair, and the popular handbook, are more to the front in our present pieture.

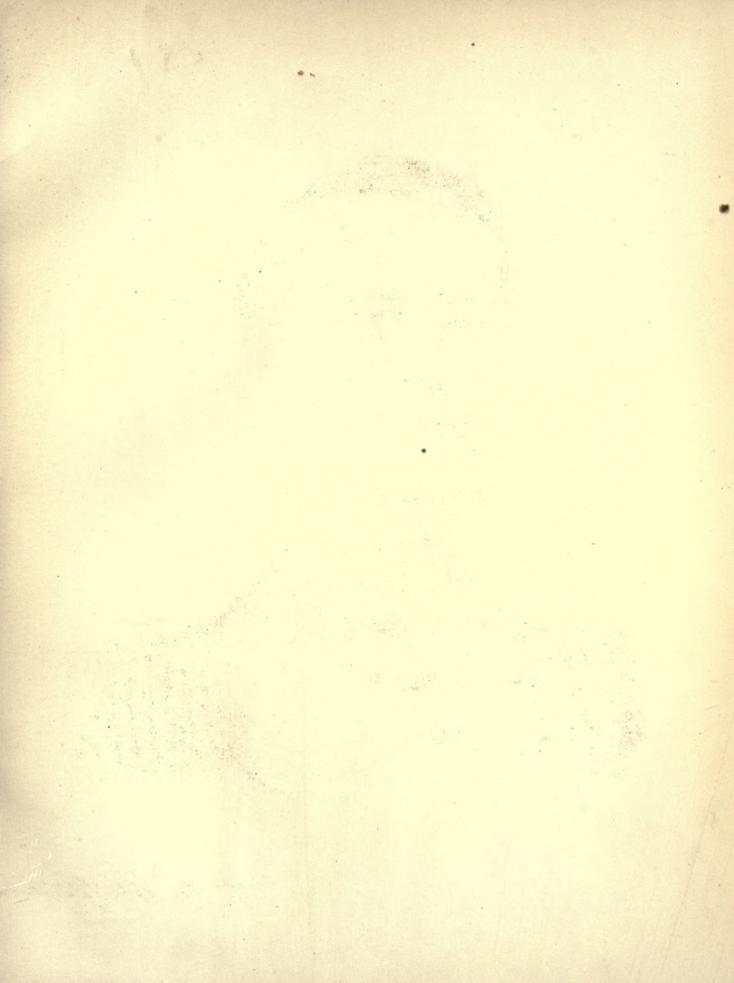
If we were to fix on one of Bishop Ellicott's writings, which, more than another, represents this phase of his character, it would be an open question whether we should turn to the volume called "Aids to Faith"—the antidote to the bane of "Essays and Reviews"—or to the later work called "The Church and the Age," consisting of essays on the principles and present position of the Anglican Church. If the preference be given to the latter, it is only because it is more recent, and the very title illustrates our present position. This volume was edited by Dr. Weir and the Rev. W. D. Maclagan, and the Bishop's paper was entitled "The Course and Direction of Modern Religious Thought." He takes us back some forty or fifty years, to a time when, as he says, "sober, religious thinkers were beginning to realise that the Church of

England was something more than a religious community bound together by thirty-nine articles of greater or less elasticity, and our liturgy something more than the fifth edition of a mid-sixteenth century document." There is a tone of quiet satire in many of the clauses of this paper which is very far from being out of place in such connection. Returning, for example, to the charge against "Essays and Reviews," his lordship says that the book found large acceptance because "every intelligent reader felt his intellectuality delicately flattered," and that it "focussed the yet unconcentrated thoughts that had been slowly manifesting themselves" for a series of years. He pleads hard for a return to the study of dogmatic theology on the lines of the Nicene Creed.

But there is still, he once again reminds us, a more excellent way. There is the need of sympathy towards those who are alienated from us. This theology must have no element of "sacerdotal dogmatism." Self-denial must be the key-note of Christianity in the nineteenth century as it was in the first. "The evident sincerity, the unflinching self-denial, the absence of all mere partisan zeal, which have marked Christian labour, especially in our great cities, have manifestly in these latter days, as in the early ages of Christianity, led many to pause and to inquire whether there must not be a deep truth in a message so earnestly and so faithfully delivered."

Last, but far from least, in the very spirit of these words, and with all the old preference for example over precept, the Bishop has thrown himself into the front ranks of the Temperanee movement. Always, as might have been expected, exceedingly abstemious, he has now become a total abstainer. He has not, indeed, signed the pledge; but he says, "I am just as settled in my mind as if I had become ever so bound. I find no difference between abstaining and non-abstaining; still, as I may encourage some, I drop the alcohol altogether." The act is quite of a piece with those which have characterised the Bishop's whole life. It is, perhaps, too early to think that such a line of policy has begun to bear fruits; but at the meeting of the Church of England Temperance Society in Lambeth Palace, on the 9th of May, 1877, the Archbishop dwelt on the preponderance of abstainers among the young men who offered themselves as candidates for ordination; and the Bishop of Gloucester and Bristol himself, about the same time, spoke some earnest words to the Cambridge under-graduates on this subject. It is marvellous how such holy contagion does extend. Verily, of this excellent prelate it may be said:—

"Christ's love, and that of the Apostles twelve, He taught; but first he practised it himself."





linesell Potter, & Grippin latho._London.E.C 7.1. M. Christock

SIR FRANCIS LEOPOLD McCLINTOCK.

THERE is a saying, attributed to Aristotle, that is not reflected a touch of caustic humour in it, namely, "that there were three things to be repeated of during life—trusting a secret to a woman, going by sea where one could go by sent and recommend for a single day without having made one's will." The wisdom of the first roay in descript that of the last is indubitable; but, happily for the world, there have ever been adventured source who rejected the second—who loved the sea for its own wild free grandeer and were attracted by its very perils, and never would have thought of going from firstless in Italy, as any place to albania by land, all round the Adriatic, where the scale of the last is not seen to firstle that across that pleasant sea. Brave sailors, we believe, there would not a last the three trust are base und reached distant lands. With islanders navigation is a necessity: the sea fits these trust was under cached distant lands. With islanders navigation is a necessity: the sea fits these trust he made, not a barrier to isolate, but a highway to connect them with other passages and trusted in the whole world have the sons of our own British islands stood forth for these alreadings, their discoveries; and Britannia may say with no untruthful beauty at these very very very very perils, their discoveries; and Britannia may say with no untruthful beauty.

In one region especially British sailow leave distanced all competitors. As Arctic explorers they have for three hundred years sought for a possessy between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, contributing more to geographical and physical science, and to the knowledge of these inhospitable regions, than all the rest of the remiens; and they have left the names of their heroes and the traces of their civilisation on many a wild and desolate shore and by many an ice-bound seaunperishable records of the indemnable energy, courage, and perseverance of British seamen. One need only look upon a median map of the Arctic regions to find it studded with the blazonry of British names-Fred bar, Hudson, Barrow, Belcher, Battin, Banks, Davis, Beechey, Lancaster, Parry, Ross, Passille, Kellett, M'Clure, Crozier, McClintock, and others. It is not her insular positive ware that has made the sons of Britain the best sailors in the world, and the most as explorers of unknown lands. It seems to be an instinct of the British nature, described these grand old Vikings whose blood still courses through our peoples' veins these three three three transitions ancestors who settled on our northern and eastern coasts, with, it may as a same samician blood too-those earlier ocean pioneers through whose the Scotch and transfer and and so we now come to sketch, all too briefly, one of the labor of our gress Auto and the Irish McClintock.

Newly three handed was in hourds the end of the reign of Elizabeth, one Alexander with the recovery of Ponegal, in Ireland, where he purchased at which the descendants continued, connecting themselves by the purchased at which we have the country, till, in the beginning of the eighteening



SIR FRANCIS LEOPOLD MCCLINTOCK.

THERE is a saying, attributed to Aristotle, that is not without a touch of caustic humour in it, namely, "that there were three things to be repented of during life—trusting a secret to a woman, going by sea where one could go by land, and remaining for a single day without having made one's will." The wisdom of the first may be doubted, that of the last is indubitable; but, happily for the world, there have ever been adventurous spirits who rejected the second—who loved the sea for its own wild free grandeur, and were attracted by its very perils, and never would have thought of going from Brindisi, in Italy, to any place in Albania by land, all round the Adriatic, when they could run in ever so frail a bark across that pleasant sea. Brave sailors, we believe, there were from the days of Noah; and we have very early records of those who, in the pursuit of gain or knowledge, navigated the great seas and reached distant lands. With islanders navigation is a necessity: the sea for them must be made, not a barrier to isolate, but a highway to connect them with other people; and foremost in the whole world have the sons of our own British islands stood forth for their adventurous spirit, their hardihood, daring, and indomitable endurance. History is filled with their exploits, their victories, their discoveries; and Britannia may say with no untruthful boast, "Quæ regio in terris nostri non plena laboris?"

In one region especially British sailors have distanced all competitors. As Arctic explorers they have for three hundred years sought for a passage between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, contributing more to geographical and physical science, and to the knowledge of these inhospitable regions, than all the rest of the nations; and they have left the names of their heroes and the traces of their civilisation on many a wild and desolate shore and by many an icc-bound seaunperishable records of the indomitable energy, courage, and perseverance of British seamen. One need only look upon a modern map of the Arctic regions to find it studded with the blazonry of British names-Frobisher, Hudson, Barrow, Belcher, Baffin, Banks, Davis, Beechey, Lancaster, Parry, Ross, Franklin, Kellett, M'Clure, Crozier, McClintock, and others. It is not her insular position alone that has made the sons of Britain the best sailors in the world, and the most adventurous explorers of unknown lands. It seems to be an instinct of the British nature, derived from those grand old Vikings whose blood still courses through our peoples' veins—those Danish and Scandinavian ancestors who settled on our northern and castern coasts, with, it may be, a dash of Phænician blood too-those earlier ocean pioneers through whom the Scotch and Irish claim descent. And so we now come to sketch, all too briefly, one of the latest of our great Arctic explorers, the Irish McClintock.

Nearly three hundred years ago, towards the end of the reign of Elizabeth, one Alexander McClintock removed his household goods from Scotland to the county of Donegal, in Ireland, where he purchased an estate. There his descendants continued, connecting themselves by marriage with some of the highest families in the country, till, in the beginning of the eighteenth

century, a branch of the stock passed into the county of Louth, where it occupied a high social position, several of its members being returned to Parliament, and forming alliances with many noble houses. Thus we come to Henry, a lieutenant in the 3rd Dragoon Guards, who married Elizabeth Melesina, the daughter of the venerable George Fleury, D.D., Archdeacon of Waterford, and settled down in the post of Collector of Customs in the town of Dundalk. marriage there was issue fourteen children, twelve of whom lived to reach mature age; and of these, Francis Leopold was the sixth, and was born at Dundalk on the 8th of July, 1819. The child may be said to have first opened his eyes upon the sea, and during his earlier years he was familiar with those waters whose waves roll in through the Irish Channel from that mighty ocean which he was destined to navigate so successfully. The endowed school of his native town, whose master was the Rev. John Darley, now Bishop of Kilmore, gave him the advantage of his early education. Even in the years of childhood young McClintock displayed a great force of character, which showed itself in a spirit of independence and selfreliance rarely met with in boys of his age. "On various occasions," says one who knew him intimately, "he manifested a tenacity of purpose and strength of will, so that when once he had determined to do a thing, whether right or wrong, no power of argument or severity of punishment could induce him to alter his determination." These qualities in the sturdy boy were developed in after-life to form the heroic man whom no dangers could deter, no trials subdue, no sufferings weary, no obstacle that was not actually insurmountable turn from his purpose. Happily, too, his nature was one which rarely led him to choose the wrong course; if he had a strong will, it was a kindly one. From his childhood he was fond of pets, and treated any wounded birds, or other animals that came into his possession, with the utmost tenderness and care. In June, 1831, he entered the Royal Navy as a first-class volunteer. The ship to which he was appointed, the Samarang, was under the command of his future brother-inlaw, Charles Paget (son of Admiral the Honourable Sir Charles Paget), and in her he served on the South American station. From that period for many years he was employed in active service, while his intervals of time were spent in study at the Royal Naval College at Portsmouth, or on board the Excellent. He served under Sir Edward Belcher during a survey of the coast of Ireland, and subsequently in various vessels in the West Indies, the Pacific Ocean, and on the coasts of North and South America, gaining the reputation of an excellent officer. In 1845 he distinguished himself, under Sir Charles Hotham, by his zeal and ability during the operations for the recovery of the Gorgon, stranded at Monte Video, and was, upon the strong recommendation of his captain, promoted, in the July of that year, to the rank of lieutenant. Returning to Eugland in 1847 from active service, McClintock was not the man to waste his time. Repairing to the college at Portsmouth, he again became a diligent student, and educated himself in every branch of his profession, including that of steam navigation.

When the continued absence of Franklin and the uncertainty as to his fate began to cause great public anxiety, the Government determined to send out an expedition in search of him. Accordingly, in 1848, the *Enterprise*, under the command of Sir James Ross, and the *Investigator*, under Captain Bird, were despatched from England on that service, and to McClintock was assigned the post of second lieutenant on board the former. It is not our purpose, nor is it within our limits, to enter into the details of that most adventurous and remarkable expedition. In a sledge journey, in 1849, along the north and west shores of North Somerset, passing Cape Bunny (then found to be an island), McClintock accompanied his gallant captain, traversing a large portion of the unknown space between it and the Magnetic Pole, and accomplishing in

forty days no less than 500 miles. When one considers the great defects in ice-travelling as then performed, and in sledge arrangements, and the terrible sufferings which the party underwent, it must be admitted that it was an heroic feat of courage, endurance, and perseverance; and it is not to be wondered at that they returned to their ship all, with the exception of McClintock, more or less broken down in health, though not in spirit. Though this expedition was unsuccessful in its main object, to the honour of the British nation (and in that honour let our Transatlantic brothers share), fresh efforts were made to discover the fate In May, 1850, four vessels sailed on a searching expedition from of the missing explorers. Greenhithe-the Resolute, Captain Austin; the Resistance, Captain Ommanney; and the screwtenders, the Intrepid, Lieutenant Sherard Osborn, and the Pioneer, Lieutenant Cator. McClintock was Ommanney's first lieutenant, and no abler could have been selected; this the record of the voyage abundantly proves. To him was entrusted the organisation of the sledging equipments; and he conducted a sledge journey over the ice, accompanied by six men, traversing from Griffiths Island to Melville Island and back, depositing records at the winter harbour, which were afterwards found by M'Clure. This journey occupied eighty days, averaging over eleven miles a day, the whole distance travelled being 900 miles, the longest performed during that expedition.

Once again our Government renewed the search; and in May, 1851, an expedition, of which Sir Edward Belcher had the command, consisting of four ships—the Assistance, the Pioneer, the Resolute, and the Intrepid—sailed from the Thames. The command of the Intrepid was given to McClintock, now Commander, as one of approved abilities and signal fitness for so arduous a duty; and he held the second place in Captain Kellett's division of the squadron, which passed two winters at Melville Island and in its neighbourhood. And well did he justify this selection. His brother officer, the distinguished Sherard Osborn, has stated that "every part of the sledge scheme carried out by Sir E. Belcher's Expedition was grounded entirely on Lieutenant McClintock's original ideas." During the spring and summer of 1853 he performed the astonishing feat of travelling with sledges, and under conditions of unusual fatigue, 1,400 miles in 105 days, having explored during that time the north and west shores of Melville Island, and the large Island of Prince Patrick, which he discovered to the westward of it. This is the longest Arctic sledge journey on record. In the autumn of 1854, the Intrepid having been abandoned in the ice in Barrow's Strait by the order of the officer commanding the squadron, the officers and crew returned in the relief ship; and on his arrival in England, in October of the same year, Commander McClintock was advanced to post rank. Of this unlucky expedition we shall only observe that, whatever blame may attach to its commander, the subordinate officers—and none more so than McClintock-"vied with each other in the zealous discharge of their appointed duties." It is interesting to remark how, under the able administration of McClintock, the important operations of sledge travelling grew up almost to a science. In each expedition he corrected the errors of the former. "The consequence was," says Admiral Sherard Osborn, "that whereas in 1849 we found our sledge parties able to remain away from the frozen-in ships only forty days to explore 200 miles of coast, those of Captain Horatio Austin's Expedition were away for eighty days, and went over 800 miles of ground; and in Sir Edward Belcher's Expedition the journeys extended over one hundred and odd days, and distances were accomplished of nearly 1,400 miles."

Meantime, the intelligence brought by Dr. Rae pointing to the probable fate of Franklin and his gallant companions caused a profound sensation in the public mind. Strong pressure was put upon the Government to make yet another effort to trace the missing expedition, both in

the cause of humanity and of science, but in vain. It was thought by the official authorities that after so many failures the Government would not be justified in sending more brave men to encounter fresh dangers in a cause which was viewed as hopeless. Franklin and his companions were pronounced to be dead, and the search to be closed. There were some, however, who would not abandon hope till certified of the worst. Amongst those stands forth conspieuously the devoted and noble wife of Franklin. When her many carnest and touching appeals had failed, she determined that no further time should be lost in vain entreaties; and though she had already sent out three expeditions, she now once more undertook the responsibilities and expenses of a final effort "to reseue our long-lost sailors from, perhaps, their living death among the Esquimaux, or to follow up their footsteps in their last journey upon earth, and to give to the world the scientific results of the expedition for which these gallant men had given up their lives." Nor were the active sympathies of her friends and the public wanting to aid her. Subscriptions to close on £3,000 were made, and stores and other articles contributed. The Fox, a steam yacht of 177 tons, was purchased for £2,000, and this "gilded pet in summer seas" was completely re-fitted for her perilous work, and enrolled in the Royal Yacht Squadron. Of all men living Lady Franklin looked to McClintock as the fittest to take the command. The offer was cheerfully accepted. "As a post of honour and of some difficulty"—let us quote his own words-"it possessed quite sufficient charms for a naval officer who had already served in three consecutive expeditions from 1848 to 1854. I was thoroughly conversant with all the details of this peculiar service, and I confess, moreover, that my whole heart was in the cause. How could I do otherwise than devote myself to save at least the record of faithful service, even unto death, of my brother officers and seamen? And being one of those by whose united efforts not only the Franklin search, but the geography of Arctic America has been brought so nearly to completion, I could not willingly resign to posterity the honour of filling up even the small remaining blank upon our maps." Such were the noble motives, such was the worthy ambition, that impelled McClintock to undertake his task, that supported and cheered him through all his sufferings and perils. And with similar feelings many of his old companions in previous Arctic voyages offered to join him, and were gladly enrolled. And so the Fox, with McClintock her commander, Hobson his lieutenant, and Allen Young as sailing master, sailed from Aberdeen on the 1st of July, 1857, on her arduous and adventurous undertaking. After experiencing more than the usual difficulties of ice navigation, the Fox reached the latitude of about 76°, in Melville Bay, in the month of August. Here she was beset with the ice-packs, which began to close around her. But McClintoek was not the man to turn back from his work; the pertinacious spirit of the boy was still as strong as ever within him, and he was determined to risk everything rather than pass an inactive winter in these frozen waters. The Fox was accordingly steered into a "lane of water," and all sail made to the breeze; but at night a dense fog came on, the floes began to close around, the wind increased, the weather grew dark; they struggled on for a few ships' lengths by the power of steam and canvas, but all in vain. It soon became apparent to her experienced commander that the little craft had not power to force her way through the ice, as a larger vessel might have done; the rudder was unshipped, and the serew lifted, in anticipation of a "squeeze." And so for three weeks they lay, endeavouring by every meansblasting with gunpowder, heaving, and warping—to move the ship towards unfrozen water; but at night the floes closed again around—"the tinker had come," as the seamen say—and the gallant little vessel, with her brave erew, was soldered into the ice on the 7th of September. "Nil tam capax fortuitorum quam mare;" and McClintock found the truth of the observation

of Tacitus. It was now manifest that they were fated to pass a winter in the moving pack of Baffin's Sea. This "dreadful reality of wintering in the pack was," as McClintock writes, "a withering blight to my dearest hopes;" but his courage never failed for a moment; and with a brave spirit and a thankful heart for the health of his crew, he made preparations for wintering and sledge travelling. For eight long months, in daily peril of destruction, with many privations, and amidst the horrors of an icy desolation, McClintock was the sustaining spirit of those committed to his charge. "A reading, writing, and navigation school has commenced," writes Allen Young, in his most interesting journal, "and our captain loses no opportunity of attending to the amusement and recreation of the men-so necessary in this dreary life." Slowly and helplessly, during these eight long months, the Fox drifted southward, beaten by storms, stricken by the packs of ice, until towards the end of April, after a day of the most imminent peril, the gallant little vessel emerged in safety from the beleaguering icebergs, "a single thump from any one of which would have been instant destruction." Again she felt the swell of the Atlantic, and was once more in open "Throughout the day," writes McClintock, "I trembled for the safety of the rudder and screw. Deprived of one or the other, even for half an hour, I think our fate would have been scaled." These are truly the moments in men's lives which test their natures-which make brave men heroes and weak men desperate. How terrible was the strain we can best understand from the words of McClintock:—"After yesterday's experience I can understand how men's hair has turned grey in a few hours. Had self-reliance been my only support and hope, it is not impossible that I might have illustrated the fact. circumstances, I did my best to ensure our safety, looked as stoical as possible, and inwardly trusted that God would favour our exertions." Once more, indeed, in the open water—but where? More than 700 miles south of the point which he had reached with so much toil, and scarcely a fortnight's sail from England. Few can realise the position or the feelings of the leader of the little expedition at this crisis. Baffled in his gallant attempt—his resources originally calculated for twenty-eight months, and ten months now uselessly spent to reduce them-an enormous responsibility devolved on him. Was he to return and re-fit? Was he to retrace his course northward? In this emergency he took counsel with himself alone; his old nature guided him. The determination of the man, like the obstinacy of the boy, would not brook defeat; and his decision, under all those discouraging circumstances, to push forward once more in pursuit of his object, presents an instance of determination and self-reliance which, if ever equalled, has certainly never been surpassed in the history of Arctic enterprise. And so, in May, we find McClintock once more working his way in his little craft northward. Not without perils and one "hair-breadth 'scape" he reached the North water, and entering Lancaster Sound, passed down Prince Regent's Strait, finally reaching Bellot's Strait, where his winter was passed, further advance being barred by ice. In the spring of 1859 McClintock despatched his sledging parties to explore the neighbouring shores in search of the missing expedition. "My scheme of sledge search," he writes, "comprehends three separate routes and parties of four men; to each party a dog-sledge and driver will be attached; Hobson, Young, and I will lead them. My journey will be to the Great Fish River, examining the shores of King William's Laud; Hobson will explore the western coast of Boothia; Young will trace the shores of Prince of Wales' Land." In pursuance of this plan, McClintock proceeded southward, examined the western coast of Boothia, and reached Montreal Island in the Great Fish River. He then traversed the western shores of King William's Land, where he came upon Hobson's record (to whom he had generously given the

examination of that district where it was most probable that the records of the missing ships would be found), and from it learned that the latter had discovered the documents which told the sad tale of the sufferings and death of Franklin and his companions. The main object of McClintock's expedition was now accomplished. The parties returned to the Fox, bringing with them numerous relies from the lost expedition of the ill-fated Erebus and Terror. The summer sun had now sufficiently dissolved the ice-fetters that had bound their little vessel, and she worked her way homeward in the autumn of 1859, arriving in the English Channel on the 20th of September, and was laid up in dock at Blackwall.

With this voyage McClintock's Arctic services terminated. How great they have been may be estimated not only by what he and his companions have suffered, but by what they have accomplished. Between the years 1848 and 1859 he had taken a prominent part in no less than four expeditions, had passed six winters, and accomplished more than 5,000 miles in sledge journeys, in the Arctic regions. What such journeys are Sir Allen Young has described in no exaggerated language. "Those only who know what it is to be exposed to a temperature of frozen mereury, accompanied with wind, can form any idea of the discomforts of dragging a sledge over the iee, upon an unknown track, day after day, and for eight or ten consecutive hours, without a meal or drink; the hands and face constantly frost-bitten, and your very boots full of ice; to be attacked with snow blindness; to eneamp and start in the dark, and spend sixteen hours upon the snow in a brown holland tent or the hastily-erected snow-house, listening to the wind, the snowdrift, and the howling of the dogs outside, and trying to wrap the frozen blanket closer round the shivering frame. The exhaustion to the system is so great, and the thirst so intense, that the evening pannikin of tea and the allowanced pound of pemmican would not be given up, were it possible to receive the whole world in exchange." By his last expedition McClintock accomplished what the two greatest maritime nations in the world in eleven expeditions had failed to do; and by his skill, courage, and indomitable perseverance, "wrung from the icy North its secret, and solved the great Franklin mystery;" and that with a solitary ship—a mere yaeht—manned by a erew of twenty men and four officers. While the main object of the expedition was ever kept prominently in view, no opportunity of advancing the cause of Science was left unimproved. A large amount of observations relating to astronomy, terrestrial magnetism, tides and currents, the barometrical, electrical, and other conditions of the atmosphere, were accurately recorded; and a large number of specimens, illustrative of the geology, as well as of the fauna and flora of these northern regions, were carefully preserved, and have enriched our national museums. Regarding, then, this voyage of the Fox from every point of view, it may without exaggeration be said that a more wonderful and memorable one has never been recorded in the annals of Arctic adventure. Nor did his country fail to recognise the great services thus rendered by McClintock. The Lords of the Admiralty, to mark their sense of the services rendered by him in bringing "the only authentic intelligence" of the fate of the Franklin Expedition, allowed his time served in the Fox to count as sea-time served in Her Majesty's Navy. Parliament voted a grant of £5,000 to him and his companions, and Her Majesty was pleased to confer upon him the honour of knighthood. Public bodies and learned societies vied with each other in showing their high appreciation of his deserts. He was entertained at a banquet at the "Thatched House" Tavern, by the officers who had served in the various Arctic Expeditions. The freedom of the City of London was conferred upon him in an appropriate box of British oak, of the value of fifty guineas, by the Lord Mayor, who entertained him at a civic banquet; and it is to be remarked that Sir Leopold McClintock is now the only naval officer who can

boast of this honour. The University of Oxford conferred upon him the honorary degree of D.C.L., and that of Cambridge the degree of LL.D., and the Royal and Geographical Societies enrolled him among their Fellows, the latter Society conferring upon him its gold medal. Nor was his native land less ardent in demonstrations of respect and admiration. The historic city of Londonderry, to whose neighbourhood his ancestors had belonged, made him free of its corporation. Addresses and valuable presentations were made to him by the City of Dublin and gentlemen of Ireland; by the town of Dundalk; by the University of Dublin, which conferred upon him the honorary degree of LL.D.; and by the Royal Dublin Society; while the Zoological and Botanical Societies severally enrolled him among their members. Abroad, too, he was not unrecognised. The Geographical and Statistical Societies of New York made him an honorary member of their body, and so did the Geographical Society of Berlin. But of all the testimonials which he received, none touched more sensitively the heart of this gallant man than that given to him by the officers and crew of the Fox. "The purchase of a gold chronometer for presentation to me was the first use the men made of their earnings; and as long as I live it will remind me of that perfect harmony, that natural esteem, and goodwill, which made our ship's company a happy little community, and contributed materially to the success of the expedition." We quote from his well-known book, "The Voyage of the Fox," which has gone through several editions.

In 1860, it being contemplated to lay an electric telegraphic cable across the Atlantic, via Iceland and Greenland, the Government were solicited to obtain the necessary deep-sea soundings. Accordingly, on the 1st of June in that year, Sir Leopold was appointed to the command of H.M.S. Bulldog for that service, and in her he made the necessary deep-sea soundings from Scotland, Iceland, Greenland, and Labrador; and on the completion of his task returned home, and resigned his command in December, 1860. An interesting narrative of this cruise is given by McClintock's senior lieutenant on the Bulldog, the late Charles Parrywhose early and sudden death terminated a life of great promise—who bears testimony to the high qualities that distinguished his captain. In March, 1861, Sir Leopold was appointed to the command of the Doris frigate; and in this ship he accompanied the Prince of Wales in his tour round the shores of the Mediterranean, during that and the following year until the 27th of December, when she was paid off. On the 16th of November, 1863, he took the command of the Aurora; and in this vessel he witnessed the naval action off Heligoland, in May, 1864, between the allied Austrian and Prussian ships, under the late Admiral Tegethoff, and the Danish squadron, under Commodore Swenson. In the summer of the same year the Aurora proceeded to the Baltic as the escort of the royal yacht Osborne, having the Prince and Princess of Wales on board, on the occasion of their visit to Copenhagen and Stockholm. Early in 1865 the Aurora was sent to the West Indies; and in October of the same year Sir Leopold left that vessel, and, as Commodore, he hoisted his broad pendant at Jamaica, on board the Aboukir. But three years' service in the West Indies temporarily impaired his health more than all that he had suffered in the Arctic regions; and resigning his command, he returned home in May, 1868, when he was appointed a naval Aide-de-camp to the Queen. In October of that year he was invited by many influential electors of the borough of Drogheda to allow himself to be put in nomination as a candidate for its representation in Parliament. He accordingly stood upon Conservative principles. Mr. Whitworth, however, was before him in the field, and, as a man who had done much for the borough, he had obtained many promises of support from the Conservative electors. Sir Leopold was not the man to draw back, and, despite of an opposition of the most violent and unconstitutional

character, he went to the hustings. But priestly influence and mob intimidation carried all before them; the military and police were assailed by an infuriated mob; the Conservative electors were beaten, wounded, and abused, and prevented from voting. Mr. Whitworth was declared elected, and Sir Leopold at once petitioned against his return. The petition is remarkable as being the first that was tried before a judge under the present law. The case was tried in January, 1869, by Mr. Justice Keogh, who delivered a judgment remarkable for great ability and sound constitutional principles, and declared the election void. But Sir Leopold did not again seek to enter Parliament.

In 1870 Sir Leopold McClintock married Annette Elizabeth, second daughter of Robert Foster Dunlop, Esq., of Monasterboice House, in the county of Louth.

In October, 1871, Sir Leopold McClintock was advanced to the rank of Rear Admiral; and in April of the following year he was appointed Rear Admiral Superintendent of the Portsmouth Royal Dockyard, the important and arduous duties of which post he performed for five years. His period of service there was marked by a very extensive enlargement of the dockyard itself; by the visit of the Shah, and the Naval Review in 1873; by the fitting out of various ships for the Ashantee War; by the departure and return of the Aretic Expedition of 1875-6; and by the return of the Prince of Wales from India in the Serapis in May, 1876. To Sir Leopold was assigned the honour of going to Ostend to meet the Shah of Persia, and conduct him to England. This he did, commanding a small squadron of ironelad ships, which escorted the Persian monarch till he landed at Dover. To him also was entrusted the absolute responsibility of fitting out the Arctic ships Alert and Discovery, and preparing their travelling equipments; and he, together with Admiral G. H. Richards, and the late lamented Admiral Sherard Osborn, constituted the Arctic Committee, who undertook the task of drawing up instructions for the guidance of the expedition, and determining the scope of its duties. And now, having finished his period as Superintendent of the Royal Dockyard of that port where some of his early years were spent in those studies which were to fit him for great achievements, he can look back to a life of almost continuous active service, full of perils, adventures, sufferings, and trials, sustained ever by the sense of doing his duty heroically, devotedly, unflinehingly-doing what the great Nelson declared that England expects every man to do. Still in the prime of life and vigour of manhood, let us hope that many years are yet before him in which he may serve his country. But be that measure of remaining life long or short, he has given the world a noble example of what can be achieved by manliness and toil—virtute et labore, the motto of his family, to which he has established a claim which heralds' blazonry could never so entitle him to. He has earned a fame and a name in every quarter of the world "wherever true courage and genuine nobility of character are appreciated "-a name which history will carry down to posterity as one of the brightest links "in the chain of worthies who have from the earliest times gained laurels" as sea explorers.



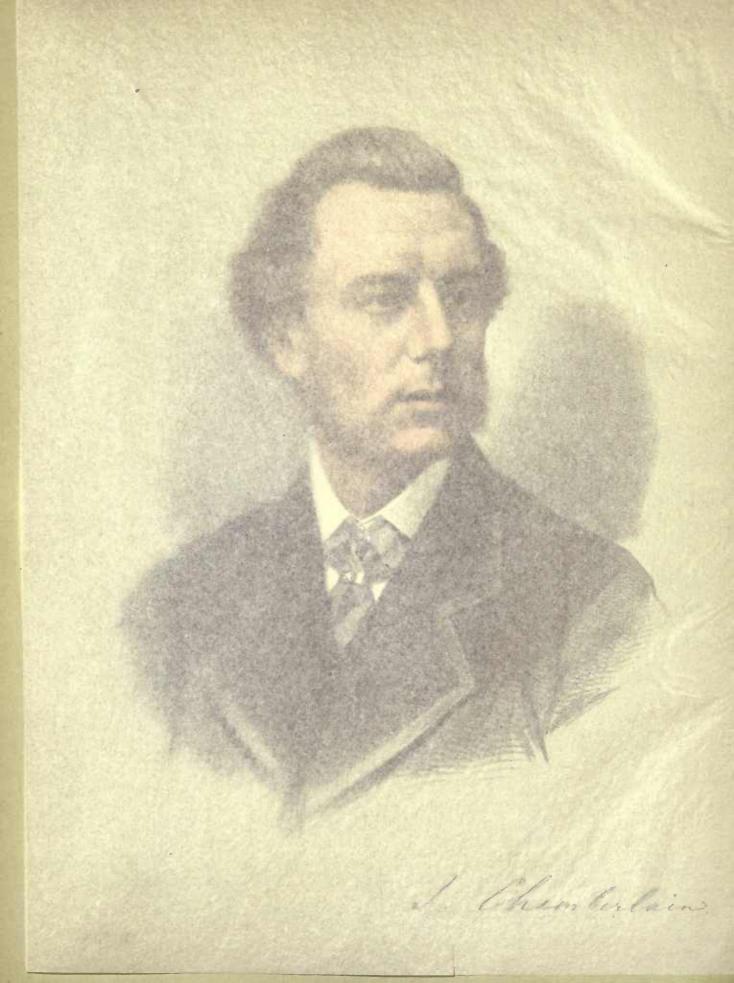


I. Chamberlain.

JOSEPH CHAMBERLAIN, ESQ., M.P.

THERE are few men who snice so high a local reputation as that which Mr. Chamberlain has won for himself in the great Midland town which, come June, 1876, he has represented in Parliament. Nor is his name by any merus unknown so that of an ardent social and political reference to a far larger section of the British pulsio. Since, however, it still remains for him to achieve distinction in the great assembly to which he has been elected, and since any impress he may leave upon the legislation of his country line yet to be made, his biography as a public man—taking and term in its wider and more natural sense—may be said to lie in the future materials and in the past. At the same time his career, though chiefly one of promise, has been in nowise destitute of performance, nor is it without indications of installante expansion to the time to come.

Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, the subject of this sketch, is the eldest son of the late Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, a member of the Cordwainers' Company, and was born in London in the year 1836. He was educated at a private school till the age of fourteen, and went there is the Lordon University School. In the year 1854 his father became a member of the first of Matthewald and Chamberlain, wood-serew makers, at Birmingham; and, later on, the sen journal to the business. It is worthy of note that at about the time the Chamberlains would be Morning and the wood-screw trade—that is, the trade, not of making wooden screw. screws for use in wood-work-was undergoing a complete revolution, on the street and the street a into it of steam machinery, first by a German clockmaker, named College and the steam of the wards from the United States, in 1854. Prior to these dates—to good the states of the by Mr. Chamberlain himself to a volume published in 1866, on "The Bername and Industrial History of Birmingham and the Midland Hardware Il screw making was carried on by a number of small manufacture to the second of the seco doubling houses, or the attached premises. The owner formation with the family and a few men. The introduction of machinery, program and the introduction of steam-power, respects about two notable changes when the mean all were success with businesses when a control of the stand has an even were much that each discover to the control of of extensive mile specially approach to the approach of the contract the contract to the contr short time to the extraction of the branch secretarians of the court of the secretarians ment se overlookers or become to the torget the Corporate Control of the torget and deplored by some at the time, but it is not be a second party of the control of t places, regularity of hours, economic of his average to have been been as the same as the The expansion in the trade resultant from the constraint and the constraint of the c may be inferred from the fact that while on 1848 the page appear at the same and the fact that while on 1848 the page appear at the same and the sam computed at 70,000 gross per week, in 1865, the angle of the same at the same week, of which one firm—that of Masses. Noticed and Control of Con



JOSEPH CHAMBERLAIN, ESQ., M.P.

THERE are few men who enjoy so high a local reputation as that which Mr. Chamberlain has won for himself in the great Midland town which, since June, 1876, he has represented in Parliament. Nor is his name by any means unknown as that of an ardent social and political reformer to a far larger section of the British public. Since, however, it still remains for him to achieve distinction in the great assembly to which he has been elected, and since any impress he may leave upon the legislation of his country has yet to be made, his biography as a public man—using that term in its wider and more national sense—may be said to lie in the future rather than in the past. At the same time his career, though chiefly one of promise, has been in nowise destitute of performance, nor is it without indications of indefinite expansion in the time to come.

Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, the subject of this sketch, is the eldest son of the late Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, a member of the Cordwainers' Company, and was born in London in the year 1836. He was educated at a private school till the age of fourteen, and went thence to the London University School. In the year 1854 his father became a member of the firm of Nettlefold and Chamberlain, wood-screw makers, at Birmingham; and, later on, the son joined him in the business. It is worthy of note that at about the time the Chamberlains went to Birmingham, the wood-serew trade—that is, the trade, not of making wooden serews, but of making metal serews for use in wood-work-was undergoing a complete revolution, owing to the introduction into it of steam machinery, first by a German clockmaker named Colbert, in 1849, and afterwards from the United States, in 1854. Prior to these dates—to quote from a paper contributed by Mr. Chamberlain himself to a volume published in 1866, on "The Resources, Products, and Industrial History of Birmingham and the Midland Hardware District "—the business of woodscrew making was carried on by a number of small manufacturers, generally in some part of their dwelling-houses, or the attached premises. The owner frequently worked himself with his family and a few men. The introduction of machinery, however, and the employment of steam-power, brought about two notable changes—first, the importation of large capital into businesses which required little when hand-labour alone was used; and, secondly, the construction of extensive mills specially adapted to the wants of the trade. These innovations led in a very short time to the extinction of the small manufacturers as such, though it found them employment as overlookers or foremen in the large establishments. The change was one which was deplored by some at the time; but it brought with it advantages unknown before—healthier workplaces, regularity of hours, economy of labour, increased demand, and, at the same time, higher wages. The expansion in the trade resulting from the changed conditions under which it was carried on may be inferred from the fact that while in 1849 the total number of screws made in England was computed at 70,000 gross per week, in 1865 the yield of Birmingham alone was 130,000 gross per week, of which one firm—that of Messrs. Nettlefold and Chamberlain, although Mr. Chamberlain

does not say so—manufactured 90,000 gross, or 30 per cent. more than the total make of 1849. As will be seen, therefore, within thirteen years of their commencing business in Birmingham, the Chamberlains had taken the lead in the business they had adopted as their own. In after years, owing to the gradual decay and to the absorption of the smaller concerns, the whole of the woodscrew trade of Birmingham practically passed into the hands of themselves and their partner. It only remains to add under this head that on the death of his father, in 1873, Mr. Joseph Chamberlain retired from the firm, in order that he might thenceforward devote the whole of his time to public life.

It is, of course, impossible to estimate the extent to which Mr. Chamberlain's social, municipal, and political career may have been shaped, first by his connection with Birmingham, and secondly, by the active part which he took in the prosecution and development of one of the leading trades of the town, during, perhaps, the most momentous crisis in its history. Among the large towns of England, Birmingham has always stood foremost as the stronghold of advanced Liberalism. It is credited by history with having taken a leading part in the great agitation which resulted in the Reform Bill of 1832. It prides itself upon having exercised an influence no less remarkable upon the destinies of the Reform question in 1867. It supported by great public meetings and enormous petitions the Municipal Reform Bill, the Abolition of Slavery, the repeal of the Corn Laws, the removal of the Taxes on Knowledge, the Disestablishment of the Irish Church, and the Abolition of Purchase in the Army. On most of these questions it raised its voice long before Parliamentary action became possible, and was not always satisfied with the legislative settlements ultimately effected. It is still agitating for further reforms in the electoral system, desiring that household suffrage may be extended to the counties; that there may be a further adjustment of the electoral districts, and a wholesale re-distribution of seats; and that, finally, the Land Laws may be amended. Its advanced views on the Education Question are well known. Its senior representative for many years has been Mr. Bright, whom it elected of its own volition in his absence—snapped him up, as it were—when he was ejected from his old seat at Manchester for expressing his approval of Lord Palmerston's defeat in the House of Commons on the Canton Question, in 1857. It is the only three-cornered constituency which has succeeded in rendering nugatory the minority clause of the Reform Act of 1867, by persistently returning three Liberal members. Into this hotbed of advanced Liberalism—or, as the men of Birmingham prefer to term it, "thoroughgoing Radicalism"—Mr. Chamberlain was thrown at precisely that period of life when the mind is most open to the impressions produced by the political and social phenomena with which it is surrounded. For it is to be noted that in Birmingham, as distinguished from some other great communities, politics are by no means the badge of a class. Radicalism and Conservatism hold about the same relative proportions among the employers as among the workmen. The leading part in the great out-door political gatherings—numbering sometimes as many as 200,000 persons—which have preceded such measures as the Reform Bills of 1832 and 1867, is taken chiefly by men of wealth and position—often by magistrates, and not infrequently by the mayor of the town. The police authorities help to organise the processions; the masters frequently head their men; high municipal authorities are found in the van of the assemblage. It seemed necessary to say thus much about the inner political life of Birmingham, inasmuch as it will serve to explain hereafter that blending of ultra-democratic principles with profound respect for authority as embodied in our monarchical system, which has so greatly puzzled some of Mr. Chamberlain's friendlicst critics in the press.

Turning to Mr. Chamberlain's business career, we find him thrown at the same impressionable

period of life into a trade which was in the very act of developing itself from the ruder forms of isolated labour into the higher order of factory organisation; and this at a time when the intimate relations between the health and comfort of the workman and the wealth of the employer were coming to be more fully recognised than they had ever been at any former time. His first activities were employed in devising and effectuating plans for the adaptation of existing plant and premises to constantly changing conditions. He was brought into contact not only with the great business world outside, but with the inner life, the daily work, the needs and the aspirations of the considerable community of working-men and working-women of whom, in common with his partners, he had charge. If, therefore, as a townsman of Birmingham, lis expanding mind lay open to the political influences by which he was surrounded as with an atmosphere, we may be sure that he would not fail to find in the factory of Messrs. Nettlefold and Chamberlain abundant scope for the development of those organising powers which were hereafter to be placed, with signal success, at the service of the municipality of Birmingham. Nor was so active an intellect likely to neglect the opportunities thus afforded it of investigating many of the social phenomena which had proved so baffling to the philosopher and the philanthropist.

It was not until the year 1868 that Mr. Chamberlain came prominently before the public even of his adopted town. Gifted with exceptional mental power, accompanied by justness in his forms of thought, great fluency of speech, and a ready wit, and furnished with a large stock of ideas, original and otherwise, he had early become the leading spirit of a local debating society, and had by degrees found his way into the numerous but somewhat select circle of literary, scientific, and philosophical men who, to a large extent, dominate the thought of the great Midland town. His appearances at public meetings, however, were few and far between until the formation of the famous Education League, of the first executive committee of which he was appointed chairman. This was in the early part of the year 1868. In November of the same year he was elected a member of the Town Council, and in 1870 a member of the first Birmingham School Board. In both bodies he speedily took a leading position; nor, perhaps, was his future career altogether uninfluenced by the fact that while in the one his lot was cast among an overwhelming and triumphant majority, he was relegated in the other to the "cold shade of the Opposition." For though the League could rely on a majority of nearly 100,000 votes, the latter were spread over such a large number of candidates that many votes were wasted, and in the end only six League representatives were returned, the advocates of denominational education being thus in a majority of one on the Birmingham School Board. It was found, however, that while the new candidate for public favour bore himself with all modesty in the assembly where his own views held sway, he was full of vigour and aggressiveness as a member of the minority in the other. Meanwhile, too, both in Birmingham and throughout the country, he was engaged with his colleagues of the League in carrying on the great agitation against Mr. Forster's Act, and in favour of a system of education which should be at once compulsory, secular, and free. Not only were the platform and the press called into universal requisition, but the extreme measure was resorted to of finding candidates to divide the Liberal party in constituencies contested by a Conservative and a Liberal who refused to accept the programme of the League. Though not yet successful as to the nation at large, the Birmingham school of educationists soon found themselves in a majority in their own town, insomuch that at the succeeding election of the School Board in 1873 they returned a preponderating number of their own candidates, whose first act was to place Mr. Chamberlain in the

position of Chairman of the Board. Since that time the Act of 1870 has been worked in Birmingham as nearly in accordance with the principles of the League as its provisions will permit; and the results thereof were set forth at large by Mr. Chamberlain in his maiden speech in the House of Commons not long after he took his seat.

Shortly before his appointment as Chairman of the School Board, namely, in November, 1873, Mr. Chamberlain—such were the aptitudes he had already shown for public business—was unanimously elected Mayor of Birmingham, to which high office, moreover, he was re-elected on two subsequent occasions. It was during this period that he commenced the great series of municipal measures with which his name will ever be honourably associated in the town of his adoption. It has been said, indeed-and that by those who are opposed to him in politics—that during his mayoralty, which lasted two years and part of a third, Birmingham underwent greater reforms and improvements than had marked any previous period of its history. At his instance the Corporation became possessed of the local waterworks, and of the businesses of the two gas companies which had previously served the town and district. For the most part the negotiations which led up to these valuable acquisitions were conducted by the Mayor himself, while the Acts of Parliament which were necessary to the purpose were carried through the Committees of the Houses under his own personal superintendence. There was more in these purchases than appears upon the surface. Birmingham is a town which has grown to its present dimensions very rapidly. There was a constant necessity, therefore, for laying down new streets, carrying out vast systems of sewerage, enlarging and erecting public buildings, and effecting other costly municipal improvements. Down to Mr. Chamberlain's time the only fund available for these purposes was that which was either drawn directly from or borrowed upon the security of the local rates. These rates, as was pointed out by the new Mayor at the time, had gradually and necessarily risen in amount until they pressed very heavily on the people, and were yet insufficient to provide adequately for the public service. On the other hand, he showed that since both the waterworks and the gasworks were carried on at a considerable profit, and since the Corporation could raise capital at a low rate, the transfer of these concerns to the Corporation would go both to relieve local taxation and to provide additional funds for public works. No sooner, again, was the Artisans' Dwellings Improvement Act passed by Mr. Disraeli's Government than its provisions were seized upon with avidity by Mr. Chamberlain and applied to a gigantic scheme for sweeping away some of the worst rookeries in Birmingham, and introducing much needed improvements in its central thoroughfares and dwellings. This great measure of local reform also was chiefly planned by himself, and, by his own personal exertions, steered safely through the shoals of a Parliamentary Committee. There are many other movements and achievements of local interest and benefit with which Mr. Chamberlain has identified himself, but those already enumerated will be sufficient to indicate the nature of the work which has gained him the high repute he enjoys among his fellow townsmen. Before quitting this part of the subject, however, it should be added that in February, 1875, owing to the heavy bereavement which fell upon him in the loss of his wife—Florence, daughter of Mr. Timothy Kenrick of Birmingham, to whom he had been married but six years—he tendered his resignation as Mayor; but the Town Council, to quote from the resolution they passed on the occasion, "while condoling and sympathising with him in his affliction" declined to accept it, preferring to wait until "an abatement in the keenness of his grief permitted his return to the duties of his high office."

Putting aside the part he took in the operations of the Education League—in whose behalf

he delivered addresses in various parts of the country-Mr. Chamberlain's first essay in the broad field of national politics dates back to February, 1874, when, in the General Election which followed upon the dissolution of Parliament at the instance of the Gladstone Government, he became a candidate for the representation of Sheffield. Mr. Mundella had been selected by the Liberal party of that town as one of their candidates, and a second candidate being required to oppose Mr. Roebuck, two gentlemen where brought forward-Mr. Chamberlain and Mr. Allott, a local alderman. The choice of a great open-air meeting fell upon Mr. Chamberlain, who, however, was defeated at the poll. Very little more was heard of him until October in the same year, when a vigorous paper from his pen, entitled "The Next Page in the Liberal Programme," appeared in the Fortnightly Review. And inasmuch as nothing that he has ever said or written throws a clearer light upon his poliitcal opinions, aspirations, and processes than that remarkable contribution to what may be termed the fugitive literature of the time, it will not be out of place to examine it somewhat closely. Though far in advance of the leaders of the Liberal party, and intensely eager to crystallise into act the projects which as yet he only holds in solution, Mr. Chamberlain shows himself in this manifesto to be gifted with the prudence and patience necessary to bide his time. He can wait. Thus at a moment when his party were awakening from the stupor into which the unexpected and crushing defeat of the previous spring had plunged them, and were beginning once more to look forward with something like hope to the future, he boldly recognises the fact that "a majority of seventy is not to be wiped out in a session." "Nor," he adds, "will the accumulated discontent of half a dozen years give way in a few months to restored enthusiasm and confidence." In his opinion "it is highly improbable that the Opposition will cross the floor of the House for some years to come." He is not for that reason, however, disposed to damp the rising spirits of the dispossessed; "better to be over-sanguine than for ever wasting in despair." At the same time stern facts must be fearlessly looked in the face. "Before reckoning on the speedy reversal of the present position of parties," he writes, "it would be well to remember that there are many Liberals to whom it matters little what persons fill particular offices, but who are deeply interested in knowing what policy they will carry out when they get there. If, then, the leaders of the party propose to do without the Radicals in future they must either unite openly with the Conservatives, or contest their claims to public confidence on purely personal grounds. They will find it impossible in any other way to prove that Tweedledum is to be preferred to Tweedledee, or that the welfare and prosperity of the country depend on ousting a Conservative party, which dare not retreat, to make room for a Liberal party which will not advance." From this it will be seen that Mr. Chamberlain throws in his lot with that extreme section of his party which has not any great amount of confidence in its existing leaders. His attitude towards Mr. Gladstone is not quite so pronounced as it is towards Mr. Forster and the Marquis of Hartington, although any confidence he may have in that statesman would seem to be founded rather in his hopes of the future than in his experience of the past. "Much as Mr. Gladstone is honoured and respected," he says, "it is not for his credit or for ours that we should take him back as we recover a stolen watch—on the condition that no questions are asked." At the same time he admits that if the late Prime Minister is willing once more to lead the advance his decided opinion is that "no better and no more skilful general can be found or desired." What Mr. Chamberlain chiefly blames the Gladstone Ministry for is "that spirit of compromise which assumed its greatest development in the measures of the Vice-President of the Council, Mr. Forster." "The Irish Church and Land Acts," he says, "the Ballot Act, the Education Acts, the Licensing Acts, and others were all disfigured in the eyes of the

most zealous advocates of their principles by concessions on important points; and in all these cases there were many who felt that the partial settlement actually achieved delayed the complete solution of the problem, and was not, therefore, by any means an unmixed advantage." The existing Liberal leaders, moreover, have exhausted their programme. They have nothing to offer for the acceptance of the party they are supposed to lead. Mr. Chamberlain is not "unreasonable enough" to ask them to adopt the "whole Radieal platform." As a mere question of policy, however, he holds that "some definite programme" is necessary for the re-union of the party, and that "it is a pure hallucination to imagine that Liberalism can be made popular by a close imitation of Conservatism." On the contrary, he says, the greater the resemblance between the two the less reason is there for any change. that perfection in our arrangements has been reached, or that no farther change is for the present desirable, all honest men must perforce be Conservatives. To have a hand in reform of some kind is not for Liberalism a question of ehoice, it is the absolute condition of its separate existence as a political party." In Mr. Chamberlain's belief, however, "both the necessity and the appetite for amendment still exist, and all that is wanting is leadership and direction." "It is granted by all," he proceeds, "by Tories as well as by Radicals, that the condition of the people is in many respects unsatisfactory; the broad line of distinction between the two great parties is that while the Conservatives hold to old methods and present means for securing improvement, the Liberals profess to believe that political changes and amended laws are an essential condition." Mr. Chamberlain then goes on to enumerate a number of evils which he thinks might be either lessened or put an end to by wise legislation. instance, he is of opinion that "a complete system of national education would secure greater moral and religious progress than all the missions in existence; that a multiplication of small proprietorships fostered by the State would give greater security to property than the most munificent Christmas doles to the deserving poor; that the abolition of the Game Laws would do more to reduce the number of criminals than the Howard Association can ever hope to accomplish; and that anything which would tend by natural causes to a more equal distribution of wealth would go farther to secure the greatest happiness to the greatest number than all the provident and benefit societies which have ever been started by those who have no need to practise thrift for the benefit of those who have no opportunity. Commonplace Liberalism may say that the country is determined not to convert Great Britain into a Utopia all at once, but it does not remember that the real country has never been consulted. The country of which it speaks is that of the well-to-do, whose idea of Utopia, such as it is, has long been realised. But these form but a small minority of the population, and a minority even of the constituencies, although they almost alone are represented in the Press and the House of The 'lower classes' have never really been invited to express an opinion." In suggesting his own programme for the future, Mr. Chamberlain looks upon the completion of the reform of the representation as theoretically the most pressing. In the second place he would recast the Land System. "If free land must be postponed," however, "the question of Free Schools is certainly hardly ripe, while Free Labour will probably be secured long before the Liberals return to office"-a prediction which was fulfilled, the reforms indicated by the term "Free Labour" being all carried by the Conservative Government in the second year of its existence-Lord Beaconsfield being "elever enough to profit by the mistakes of his opponents," and therefore "not likely to allow the immediate grievances of the Trades Unionists to go unredressed for the sake of conciliating employers who are unreasonable in their demands."

This being so, the one great question on which, according to Mr. Chamberlain, the Liberal party may be summoned to unite and reform, is the separation of Church and State; and it is needless to say that upon this point he presents himself as a thorough Liberationist.

From the brief summary here given the reader will be able to form a tolerably clear idea of the path which Mr. Chamberlain has marked out for himself in political life. Since writing this paper he has delivered many speeches and published many articles, but he has never deviated from the principles there laid down. He was returned for Birmingham without opposition, on the resignation of Mr. George Dixon, in June, 1876—the Chairman of the local Liberal Association, Mr. J. S. Wright, a Justice of the Peace and a Liberal of long-standing and eminence, voluntarily giving up any claims he might have had on the party in favour of his younger colleague. In thanking a crowded public meeting of his townsmen, held in Bingley Hall, for the confidence they had reposed in him, the new member renewed his declarations of "fidelity to the principles of Liberalism and hostility to the compromises by which they were sometimes betrayed." For himself, he said, he trusted in the people; he believed in their good sense and their patriotism. He found manufacturers living in security among their workmen, and the aristoeraey and their tenants leading tranquil lives among their labourers; and he saw no reason whatever for supposing that the possession of a vote would turn these peaceful, honest, and industrious citizens into foes against society and order. He would, therefore, extend the franchise to the counties, effect a just re-distribution of seats, and make the Ballot effective, believing that if Parliament could but be brought to represent the real wishes of the real majority in the country, beneficial legislation would immediately follow. He would apply the principle of popular control to the much-contested system of licensing public houses, or something like the Gothenburg system—a system which he has since advocated in detail, in the Fortnightly Review and in Parliament—for he did not see why a community should not be as well able to control the trade in intoxicating liquors as to take charge of the water and gas supplies. For the rest he followed the broad lines laid down in the paper of which a summary has already been given.

As yet Mr. Chamberlain has delivered but few speeches in the House of Commons, but whenever he has spoken it has been with marked effect. His maiden speech, indeed, was regarded as one of the successes of the session. His leading topics have been the Education Question, the Gothenburg System, and Eastern Affairs as dealt with in the Resolutions moved by Mr. Gladstone in the early part of May, 1877.

On the 3rd of November, 1874, the Prince and Princess of Wales honoured Birmingham with a State visit; and owing to some stray words which had a short time previously been dropped at a public meeting by Mr. Chamberlain expressive of his approval of the abstract principles underlying Republicanism, some curiosity was felt outside the town—chiefly in the metropolis it would seem—as to how a "Radical," or, rather as he now came to be termed, a "Republican" Mayor, would demean himself while offering the hospitalities of the town to royalty. A story had even got abroad, and was repeated in the Times—so quickly do inventions travel nowadays—that Mr. Chamberlain "had already been favoured with an interview by the Prince, and had endeavoured to explain to him, with only partial success, the advantage of surrendering to the people his rights of succession." Those who have read what has been written in a former part of this article, touching the inner political life of Birmingham, however, will readily understand that Mr. Chamberlain's townsmen were not likely to share the doubts of outsiders as to whether it was possible for a politician of extreme Radical views to behave himself like a well-bred man. Where the élite of a community are as advanced in democratic views as the man

who works without his coat, the profession of a political creed, whatever its colour may be, carries with it no social disability; nor, on the other hand, is a man debarred by his politics from acquiring the habits of a gentleman. Accordingly we read in the *Times* account of the luncheon at which the Prince and Princess of Wales were the guests of Mr. Chamberlain, as Mayor for the time being, that "the Mayor's reception of the Prince and Princess was simple, dignified, and becoming, while the speeches in which he proposed the health of Her Majesty and that of their Royal Highnesses were as distinguished for their loyal courtesy as for their self-respect."

In November, 1876, after his election to Parliament, a visit paid to Birmingham by Mr. Cross, the Conservative Home Secretary, at the invitation of the local Conservative party, afforded Mr. Chamberlain an opportunity of aeknowledging legislative services which had been rendered to his own town in particular, and to the country at large, by a political opponent; while still later on, in June, 1877, he had the honour of entertaining Mr. Gladstone on the occasion of that statesman's first visit and great speech at Birmingham on the Eastern Question.

It only remains to add that Mr. Chamberlain has by speech and otherwise done much to help forward the agricultural labourers' movement, and has identified himself more or less with other societies of working men, both political and economical; while not long before his election to Parliament he was appointed, by delegates representing 30,000 members of the National Association of Ironworkers, a joint trustee of their fund, with Mr. David Dale, of Darlington, and the widow of their late secretary.

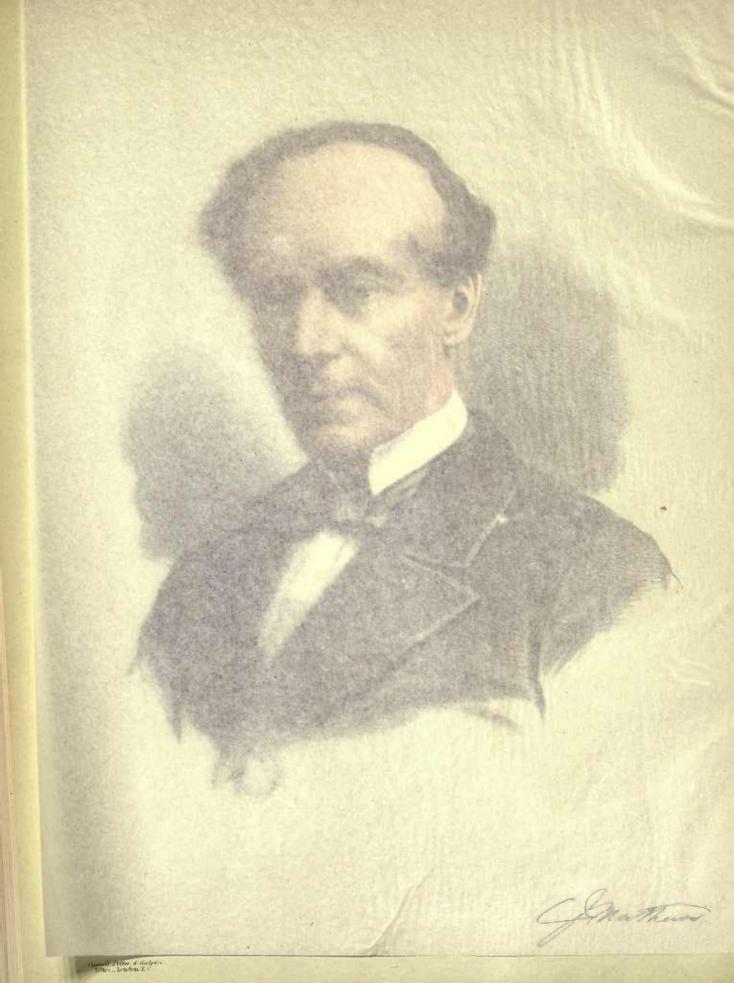




Mathews.

CHARLES MATHEWS.

YMARLES JAMES MATHEWS the only som of the web-known connection, the late Charles Matthews, who was so justive celebrated for his insuitable monostramatic entertainments, was here at Isverpool on the 26th of December, 1803. He was at an early age, by the friendship and befraence of Sir John Silvester, the Meconler of the City of London, placed on the foundation of the Merchant Taylors' School, with the intention of being educated for the Church, and was there received into the family of the Rev. Mr. Cherry, the head-master. But being naturally of a somewhat delicate constitution, he was unable to bear the restraint and close confinement, and his father was therefore educatedly compelled to take him away from that institution, with and many advantages, both present and future, soon after he had gained the fifth form. The sons of Moses. Charles Kamble, Young, Terry, and Liston being pupils of Dr. Richardson, of the Claphan Road, Mr. Martines thought he could not do better than place his son in the same establishment, and Charles was therefore confided to the care of Dr. Richardson. He made such very satisfactory progress at Chapham, that it was proposed to send him to college on the completion of his preparate studies. His father's great desire had been to qualify his son for the Church, and he was therefore much disappointed when he discovered that he had a very strong predication for the profession of an architect. The idea of his taking hely orders being relinquations, he was, on his quitting school in 1819, articled for four years to Mr. Pugin, the architectural draughtsman; and during that period several of his architectural drawings were exhibited by his master at Somerset House. He afterwards pursued his studies in the office of Mr. Nash. In 1882 Mr. Mathews made his appearance in a private theatrical perfective at the English Opera House (the site of the present Lycoum Theatre) in the changes " in the French vaudeville of the "Comédien d'Etampes" (which he has more adapted to the English stage under the title of "He would be an elector"), in imitation of the famous original actor, Perlet; and one of the flattering results of his performance of the character was an offer of an engagement from the management of the French theatre in Landon. Every seab in the house was occupied, and the accioned largely consisted of people of fashion and intellectual celebrities who were attracted by the accept felt in the here of the ranks, he besser the son of one of the most popular action of the day. His success was econologe, and a support was set affeat that he had de Supported to relinquish the profession of an accordance and fallow that of an actor. But he had been no such intention, and only performed reasonable. His father, however, thinking his reason very promising, rather encouraged the rate of his sentence do stage as a profession. The emporposited the Earl of Blessington to is large to the beauty seen in the professional consecution for Earl having decided to build a managing on the forest and the best of the build a managing or other the idea was ultimately absorbed to the transfer of the Walley and the England. On



CHARLES MATHEWS.

CHARLES JAMES MATHEWS, the only son of the well-known comedian, the late Charles Mathews, who was so justly celebrated for his inimitable monodramatic entertainments, was born at Liverpool on the 26th of December, 1803. He was at an early age, by the friendship and influence of Sir John Silvester, the Recorder of the City of London, placed on the foundation of the Merchant Taylors' School, with the intention of being educated for the Church, and was there received into the family of the Rev. Mr. Cherry, the head-master. But being naturally of a somewhat delicate constitution, he was unable to bear the restraint and close confinement, and his father was therefore reluctantly compelled to take him away from that institution, with its many advantages, both present and future, soon after he had gained the fifth form. The sons of Messrs. Charles Kemble, Young, Terry, and Liston being pupils of Dr. Richardson, of the Clapham Road, Mr. Mathews thought he could not do better than place his son in the same establishment; and Charles was therefore confided to the care of Dr. Richardson. He made such very satisfactory progress at Clapham, that it was proposed to send him to college on the completion of his preparatory studies. His father's great desire had been to qualify his son for the Church, and he was therefore much disappointed when he discovered that he had a very strong predilection for the profession of an architect. The idea of his taking holy orders being relinquished, he was, on his quitting school in 1819, articled for four years to Mr. Pugin, the architectural draughtsman; and during that period several of his architectural drawings were exhibited by his master at Somerset House. He afterwards pursued his studies in the office of Mr. Nash. In 1822 Mr. Mathews made his appearance in a private theatrical performance at the English Opera House (the site of the present Lyccum Theatre) in the character of "Dorival" in the French vaudeville of the "Comédien d'Etampes" (which he has since adapted to the English stage under the title of "He would be an Actor"), in imitation of the famous original actor, Perlet; and one of the flattering results of his performance of the character was an offer of an engagement from the management of the French theatre in London. Every seat in the house was occupied, and the audience largely consisted of people of fashion and intellectual celebrities who were attracted by the interest felt in the hero of the night, he being the son of one of the most popular actors of the day. His success was complete, and a rumour was set afloat that he had determined to relinquish the profession of an architect, and follow that of an actor. But he had then no such intention, and only performed one night. His father, however, thinking his talents very promising, rather encouraged the idea of his adopting the stage as a profession. He accompanied the Earl of Blessington to Ireland in the following year, in his professional capacity, the Earl having decided to build a mansion on his Tyrone estate of Mountjoy Forest. For some reason or other the idea was ultimately abandoned, and his lordship and Mr. Mathews returned, re infecta, to England. On

reaching London, Lord Blessington expressed his desire to take Charles Mathews to Naples, where he had left his family a short time previously, and to which place he was then about to return. Consent being obtained from the parents of young Mathews, he proceeded to Naples with his patron, and remained with the Blessingtons and Count D'Orsay for about a year; where, at the Palazzo Belvedere, he pursued his architectural studies, making excursions from time to time to various parts of the kingdom of Naples, wherever ancient monuments and old architectural remains were to be seen and studied with advantage.

The distinguishing traits of Mr. Mathews' character at this period are very graphically described by Mr. R. R. Madden, who writes as follows:--"When I made the acquaintance of Charles Mathews at Naples, he was scarcely twenty years of age. He sketched admirably, and made a study of his profession; was full of humour, vivacity, and drollery, but gentleman-like withal; marvellously mercurial, always in motion, and his mind ever as actively engaged as his body. But, with all his buoyancy of spirits, and in the very height of his drollery and merriment in the society of Belvedere Palace, where all the élite of foreign society were wont to congregate, he never forgot himself for a moment, or by the extraordinary vivacity of his humour, his sudden sallies of sportiveness, in the way of epigrams, impromptus, witticisms, all sorts of grotesque antics, and ridiculous pranks and gambols, gave offence to any living being. He was certainly one of the steadiest, best-conducted, yet sprightliest persons of his age—one of the most innocently amusing and legitimately entertaining young men, in society, I ever met with. talents as a draughtsman were far above mediocrity. In architectural drawings he excelled. A sketch of his of the exterior of the Belvedere Palace, displaying the colonnade and verandah of the front facing the Bay of Naples, possesses considerable merit and interest for all acquainted with the place and the people who gave celebrity to it. He displayed peculiar cleverness in catching the salient points and outré characteristics of remarkable Neapolitan personages who figured in the courts, as story-tellers on the Molo, as Policinella in the theatre of San Carlino, as cantatrices on the boards of San Carlo, and as street-preachers holding forth in the evening, on stools and rickety tables, to the lazzaroni on the pier at Naples. Of his talent for composing vers de société, burlesque poetry, and epigrams, the frequenters of the Villa Belvedere in 1824 and 1825 must have a lively recollection. Several specimens of these were given to me in the former year, in Naples, by Mr. Mathews." Lady Blessington, in her Italian diary, thus speaks of Charles Mathews' remarkable power of mimicry:—"We returned to Salerno; the strangers who joined our party at Pæstum being no less delighted than surprised by the extraordinary facility or felicity with which Mr. Charles Mathews personated different mendicants who had assailed us for alms on our route in the morning, and of whom he gave such perfect imitations in the evening, that some of the party who had previously bestowed their charity reproached the supposed beggar for again demanding it on the same day."

During the stay at Naples a misunderstanding arose between Mr. Mathews and Count D'Orsay, which led to a challenge being forwarded to the latter. The interposition of friends at length drew a full apology from the Count, and the matter happily ended peacefully. Mr. Mathews, in an account of the affair, after recounting the ample apology of the Count, says:—
"Thus ended this unhappy business, for which no one could be more sorry than myself; though I am quite convinced that Count D'Orsay, whenever he reflects upon it, will perfectly exculpate me from the charge of having taken one step beyond what was necessary, or what he would himself have done under similar circumstances."

In 1825 Mr. Mathews returned to England and to his profession, and was in this year, when

travelling with his father, introduced to Sir Walter Scott, who gave him an invitation to Abbotsford, remarking to the elder Mathews, "He's a very nice lad that, and exceedingly elever." This was after hearing some of his songs and imitations. In the following year he was appointed architect to a mining company in Wales, where he made his first professional essay in the superintendence over works of considerable magnitude, including the building of Hartsheath Hall, the seat of Mr. John Gray, a bridge, an inn, a hundred workmen's cottages, and the constructing of storehouses and tramways. Whilst thus engaged he wrote the ballad of "Jenny Jones," which afterwards became very popular, and a portion also of his father's well-known monologue, "At Home." In 1827 he quitted England for Italy on a professional tour, accompanied by Mr. James D'Egville, a gentleman with whom he had been associated in Mr. Pugin's office, and now a distinguished member of the Institute of Painters in Water Colours. They travelled together for four years through Switzerland, Germany, Italy, Sieily, Istria, Dalmatia, and other places, and examined the ancient monuments of those parts, exhibiting their architectural drawings in the Academies of Milan, Venice, and Rome. In these three cities Mr. Mathews was elected a member of the several Academies; and at Milan some sketches of his, including one of the Duomo D'Ossola, are still exhibited. Even at this age Mr. Mathews showed remarkable talents for composition; and of a really exquisite letter addressed to his mother from Peroi, Samuel Taylor Coleridge, in writing to Mrs. Mathews, says:—"It would be profanation even to alter the position of a word in your dear son's sweet letter in the same language, much more to hazard such substitutes as rhyme and verse might require. But even the genius of a Byron could not be better employed than in translating them into a Greek poem. They are poetry of the best kind-imagination—the power of pieturesque arrangement and playful will in the service of a pure, most affectionate heart. From my own very heart I congratulate you on such a son." In 1829 the two friends visited Florence, at which city Lord Normanby was then residing, and was entertaining the Florentines with private theatricals. Mr. Mathews, at his lordship's request, joined the company of amateurs, and appeared, amongst others, in the following characters: "Risk," in "Love Laughs at Locksmiths;" "Dogberry," in "Much Ado about Nothing;" "Tony Lumpkin," in "She Stoops to Conquer;" "Adam," in "The Iron Chest;" "Buskin," in "Killing no Murder;" "Simpson," in "Simpson and Co.;" and "Falstaff," in "Henry IV." Mr. Mathews' fellow-actors in the above plays were Lord and Lady Normanby, Sir Hedworth and Lady Williamson, Lord Fitzharris, Lord Albert Conyngham, La Principessa Belgiojoso, La Marchesa de Pulcie, and others of less note. Mr. Mathews also performed "Sir Benjamin Backbite" in Sheridan's "School for Scandal" at the house of Lord Burghersh, then English Ambassador at the Court of Tuscany; on which oceasion "Lady Teazle" was played by Lady Burghersh, "Joseph Surface" by the Marquis of Douro (the present Duke of Wellington), and "Charles Surface" by Mr. Aubyn. Whilst at Florence, Mr. Mathews built a small theatre for Lord Normanby, and also painted the drop-scene for it.

Mr. Mathews and his companion re-visited Rome in July, 1830, in order to obtain the diplomas which had been promised to them by Saint Luke's Academy. During their stay in the Eternal City a walking tour was projected and commenced; but Mr. Mathews was unfortunately seized with an attack of the fever of the country. He managed to return to Venice, where he had friends, and was there confined to his bed for six months. He entirely lost the use of his limbs; and at last, despairing of deriving any benefit from local medical aid, he determined—notwithstanding the declaration of his physicians that such an attempt would be fatal—to endeavour to reach England. With this object he travelled day and night for nineteer days,

in a conveyance fitted with a bed, attended by an Italian valet, who lifted him about like an infant; and when he at last reached London, his servant bore him on his back into the house of his parents. Mr. Mathews remained in this helpless condition for nearly twelve months, and for one year afterwards was only able to get about with the aid of a stout stick. He may therefore be said to have lost two of the most precious years of his early life.

The effects of his illness at length gradually disappeared, and he lost no time in resuming his professional studies. In 1832 he became a candidate for the appointment of District Surveyor of Bow and Bethnal Green, which post was then vacant, with the result that he was elected by a large majority. He held this post until he made his appearance on the stage, from which period he altogether abandoned the architectural profession. He had, however, during the intervals of professional study, already written several pieces for the stage; and in the year 1832 he produced at the Haymarket Theatre two very successful plays—"The Wolf and the Lamb," and "The Court Jester;" and in 1833 two other popular dramas—"My Wife's Mother," and "Pyramus and Thisbe." Whilst on a visit to the Duke and Duchess of Bedford, at Woburn Abbey, in the Christmas of 1833, he took a very prominent part in some private theatricals which were there performed, being announced in the programme as "the celebrated Mr. Charles Mathews, from the Theatre Royal San Clemente, Florence." He played "Peter Simpson" in the farce of "Simpson and Co.," her Grace the Duchess of Bedford performing "Mrs. Simpson;" "Gradus," in "Who's the Dupe?" and "Buckskin," in "The Man and his Tiger." The "company" consisted of the Duchess, the Baroness de Clifford, Lady Georgiana Russell, Lady Rachael Russell, Lord C. J. F. Russell, Lord Francis Russell, Lord Charles Russell, and others.

In 1834-35 Mr. Mathews turned his attention to painting; and in October, 1835, sent a view of the Lake of Perugia to the Somerset House Exhibition, where the picture was accepted, although in an unfinished state. He had hurried it for exhibition in order to surprise and gratify his father on his return from his American tour, but his father did not live to see it. On the death of the latter, in 1835, Mr. Mathews undertook the management of the Adelphi Theatre, the elder Mathews having purchased a share in that property some years previously; and the opening of the theatre, in December of this year, was heralded in the John Bull newspaper as follows:-"Mathews the younger, in partnership with Yates, ascends the managerial throne. A new piece from his own pen is announced for to-morrow, and the son of our popular favourite appears before the public in a varied character. As architect, he can build theatres; as artist, he can paint the scenery; as author, he can write the pieces, if he choose; as an actor, he can perform them." The piece he wrote for the opening was called "Mandrin," which was successful; but the hopes of the new management were destroyed by an unforeseen contingency. Mr. Osbaldiston, the manager of Covent Garden Theatre, opened his house at the low prices of the minor theatres; and although he in the end lost a great deal of money over the speculation, the effect on the Adelphi was so disastrous that, after expending considerable sums to keep it open, it was found necessary to dispose of the property.

After this failure, Mr. Mathews' advisers strongly recommended him to adopt the stage as a profession, and he was at length reluctantly persuaded to relinquish Architecture in favour of the Drama. The Olympic, being of moderate size, and the then home of the "drawing-room" description of plays, was considered the most suitable theatre for a novice, whose unpractised powers might not be sufficiently effective in a wider sphere; and at that house, after only a fortnight's preparation, Mr. Mathews made his first appearance on a regular stage, on the 7th of December, 1835, as "George Rattleton" in a short piece written by himself, entitled "The Humpbacked

Lover," and in a drama, written for the occasion by Mr. Leman Rede, called "The Old and Young Stager;" and he at once established himself as a favourite. On the occasion of his first appearance, the incomparable Liston delayed his departure from the stage in order to protect the débût of the son of his old colleague and friend—and, to quote the words of an eminent eritic, "there have been few debûts more curiously expected and more cordially welcomed." It was known to the "boxes" that Charles Mathews had been made much of in many aristocratic families, and had acted in private circles with singular success. It was known to the "pit" (in those days there were no stalls) that the son of the public favourite, though trained as an architeet, had resolved to change his profession; and as the Olympic, under the management of Madame Vestris, was the theatre of the elegances and the home of pleasant mirthfulness, the appearance of the young artist on these boards was in itself an event of no ordinary importance. But speculations such as these are as perilous to weak pretensions as they are encouraging to real talent; and if Charles Mathews triumphed, it was in virtue of very undeniable qualities. Anything so airy and fascinating as this young man had not been seen upon our stage. In general, theatres feel that the jeune premier is their weak point. He is bad enough in fiction; but in fiction we do not see him, whereas on the stage the weakness of the character is usually aggravated by a "bend in the back" and an implacable fatuity. It is a rare assemblage of qualities that enables an actor to be sufficiently good-looking without being insufferably conceited, to be quiet without being absolutely insignificant, to be lively without being vulgar, to look like a gentleman, to speak and move like a gentleman, and yet be as interesting as if this quietness were only the restraint of power, not the absence of individuality; and the more pronounced the individuality—that is, the more impassioned or more vivacious the character represented—the greater is the danger of becoming offensive by exaggeration and coarseness. Mr. Mathews was eminently vivacious; a nimble spirit of mirth sparkled in his eye, and gave airiness to every gesture. He was in incessant movement, without ever becoming obtrusive or fidgety. A certain grace tempered his vivacity; an innate sense of elegance rescued him from the exaggerations of animal spirits. "He wanted weight," as an old playgoer once reproachfully said of him; but he had the qualities of his defects, and the want of weight became delightful airiness.

Mr. Mathews continued his successful career at this theatre until 1838, in which year—on the 18th of July—he was married to the celebrated Madame Vestris at Kensington Church, and immediately after the ceremony started for Bristol, whence, shortly afterwards, he and his wife sailed for America. On returning to England in the following year, Mr. Mathews became lessee of Covent Garden Theatre, and opened that house on the 30th of September with "Love's Labour's Lost." He produced a large number of new comedies by various authors, including "London Assurance," "Bubbles of a Day," and "Love," together with a host of revivals—"The Merry Wives of Windsor," "A Midsummer Night's Dream," "Comus," &c., with many pantomimes, farces, and spectacular plays. His management of this theatre lasted for three years. His next attempt at management was at the Lyceum, of which theatre he became lessee in October, 1847, including in his company many of the old Olympic favourites. He there originated the graceful fairy extravaganza, which description of entertainment afterwards became exceedingly popular, and the taste for which has scarcely yet disappeared. Mr. Planché was the principal author of these elegant works, being ably assisted by the elaborate scenery of Mr. William Beverley, not the least attractive portion of the performance being the "transformation seenes"—then an entire novelty. The principal pieces of this description produced were-"The Golden Branch," "The King of the Peacocks," "The Island of Jewels," "King Charming," "The Prince of Happy

Land," "The Good Woman in the Wood," and "Once upon a time there were Two Kings." Mr. Mathews relinquished the management of the theatre in March, 1855, when he took the opportunity of announcing that he intended to retire from all management "at once and for ever."

It will be difficult for many persons to imagine Mr. Mathews in burlesque, but among other characters he has played "Chorus" in "The Golden Fleece." It has been said, with truth, that he is assuredly not what would be called a burlesque actor in the ordinary acceptation of the term, nor would any one familiar with his style suppose him capable of the heartiness and force usually demanded by burlesque; and yet, because he is a fine actor, he is fine also in burlesque, giving a truthful and easy personation to an absurd conception. Probably few who saw Mr. Mathews play the "Chorus" consider that there was any art required to play it. They can understand that to sing "patter" songs as he sings them may not be easy; but to be quiet, and graceful, and humorous, to make every line tell, and yet never show the stress of effort, will not seem wonderful. If they could see another actor in the part it would open their eyes.

Mr. Mathews may be expected to feel strongly on the subject of International Copyright; and in 1852 he published a pamphlet, entitled "Lettre de M. Charles Mathews aux Auteurs Dramatiques de la France," on the subject of the convention concluded between England and France in January of that year. After pointing out that the adaptation of French plays was not nearly so general as supposed, he sought to show that the French authors would be the losers in the end by selling their rights to the first comers, even though they had been paid their price. The sound sense of the advice given in this letter cannot be too highly praised, and, in attempting to put a stop to a notorious evil, Mr. Mathews deserved all credit.

In 1858 Mr. Mathews made another trip to America, where he married his second wife, Mrs. Davenport, an accomplished actress—Madame Vestris having died in the previous year. The tour lasted about a year, during which period he visited all the principal towns of the United States, playing his usual *répertoire* with great success. Returning to England in 1859, Mr. Mathews was requested to preside at the fourteenth anniversary festival of the Royal General Theatrical Fund, and his several speeches sparkled with that wit and humour for which he is so widely celebrated.

About this period Mr. Mathews quitted the regular stage for a time, and commenced a series of "At Home" entertainments, after the style of those made celebrated by his father, and in these he was ably assisted by his wife. He continued these performances for about twelve months in London, and afterwards transferred them to the provinces for a similar period.

Desirous of showing French playgoers that he was competent to play before them in their own language, Mr. Mathews appeared at the Théâtre des Variétés, Paris, in 1863, in the principal character of a French version, executed by himself, of "Cool as a Cucumber," entitled "L'Anglais Timide." The reception accorded to Mr. Mathews in the French capital was so flattering, that he was induced to repeat his visit two years later, when a French version of "Used Up," entitled "L'Homme Blasé," was played by him for fifty nights at the Vaudeville. It should be remarked that at the termination of his engagement at the Variétés all the principal actors in Paris appeared in the costume of their favourite parts to bid the English comedian a cordial adieu. Critics and playgoers have held the opinion that Mr. Mathews may fairly be classed with the best French actors in his own line; and the success which he achieved on the French stage during the two seasons here referred to is a striking confirmation of that opinion.

The love of travel induced Mr. Mathews and his wife to start for a tour round the world in 1870; and he duly appeared at the principal theatres in Melbourne, Sydney, and Adelaide:

gave a matinée at Auckland, New Zealand, en route for California, and played one night by command of the King of the Sandwich Islands, at Honolulu. He played for a fortnight at San Francisco, on his way to the Fifth Avenue Theatre, at New York, travelled through the United States for twelve months, and finished at Wallack's Theatre, New York, in 1872. Previous to his departure on this tour a benefit on a colossal scale was given to him at Covent Garden Theatre. Of this benefit the Times critic observes:-"The most accomplished comedian of the present stage—a man who has delighted an English and a French public—is about to quit this country for Australia, accompanied by his wife; and the whole theatrical profession had resolved to pay him a farewell compliment. We need scarcely say that the house was crowded in every part. An artist who has amused London for something like thirty-five years, and is still fresh as ever, could not be allowed to start on a long voyage without a special demonstration. Indeed, into the act of Mr. Robertson's 'School,' which formed one of the extensive series of selected fragments, a passage was ingeniously introduced, which fully represented the convictions of the audience, and served as a signal for loud acclamation. The Examiner was made to ask Naomi Tighe (Miss Marie Wilton), what English artist could certainly be appreciated in a distant land, and 'Charles Mathews' was the ready response of the lively damsel." The programme included a scene from "The House on the Bridge," with Madame Celeste; the examination seene from the comedy of "School;" the cottage scene from "The Lady of Lyons," with Mrs. Hermann Vezin as "Pauline;" a scene from "Not such a Fool as he Looks," with Mr. H. J. Byron as "Sir Simon Simple;" a scene from "The Toodles," with Mr. J. S. Clarke as "Mr. Toodles;" concluding with the second act of Sheridan's "Critic," the various characters in the last-named being sustained by Messrs. Charles Mathews, Alfred Wigan, Barry Sullivan, Arthur Sketchley, J. B. Buckstone, Lionel Brough, J. L. Toole, Mrs. Keeley, and numerous other artists of position. A curious fact in connection with this benefit, and one which showed the wonderful popularity of Mr. Mathews, is that no poster, board, bill, or advertisement of any kind was issued-simply an announcement being made in the newspapers.

Having returned to England at the latter end of 1872, Mr. Mathews remained in this country for two or three years, performing in London and in the provinces. In September, 1875, he produced a new two-act comedy at the Gaicty Theatre, called "My Awful Dad," in which, as "Adonis Evergreen," he secured unqualified success. On the first night of the performance the veteran comedian played with undiminished humour and vivacity; and a neat "tag" at the end, to the effect that he hoped the audience might always be pleased to see him look "as young as ever," brought down a roar of applause.

In November, 1875, Mr. Mathews once more left England on a foreign tour, this time for India, where he played at Calcutta for a month. During the visit of the Prince of Wales to that city, his Royal Highness gave his command for a performance, on which occasion the house realised the enormous sum of £2,000, all the rajahs having bought boxes at extravagant prices. Mr. Mathews returned to London in the following spring, where he continued to delight audiences with the freshness and piquancy of his representations. The multitude of characters, many of them excellent types, which Mr. Mathews has portrayed, is so great that it is impossible to name them. They have all had one inestimable quality, that of being pleasant; and the consequence is that he is a universal favourite. Indeed, the personal regard which the public feels for him is extraordinary, when we consider that it is not within the scope of his powers to move us by kindling any of our deeper feelings. It has been said of Mr. Mathews that he is a most accomplished comedian within a certain range, the limits of which are determined

by his singular want of passionate expression. No good actor is probably more powerless in the manifestation of all the powerful emotions: rage, scorn, pathos, dignity, vindictiveness, tenderness, and wild mirth, are all beyond his means; and he cannot even laugh with animal heartiness. He sparkles, he never explodes. Yet his keen observation, his powers of imitation, and a certain artistic power of preserving the unity of a character in all its details, are singularly shown in such parts as "Lavater," "Sir Charles Coldstream," "Mr. Affable Hawk," and the villain in "The Day of Reckoning;" and he is universally recognised and acknowledged as a master of light and eccentric comedy.

As a dramatic author Mr. Mathews has been very prolific, and in addition to those pieces already mentioned, he has written "Pong Wong," "Used Up," "The Dowager," "Soft Sex," "Paul Pry Married," "Who killed Cock Robin?" "Adventures of a Billet Donx," "Married for Money?" "Patter versus Clatter," "The Ringdoves," "Why did you Die?" "Black Domino," "Little Toddlekins," "Chain of Events," "A Strange History," and many others. He has neatly adapted some of the most sparkling pieces of the Parisian dramatists to the English boards, and his clever version of Foote's comedy of "The Liar"—produced at the Olympic Theatre in 1867—which ran upwards of one hundred nights, attests the practical skill of a dramatist who may be said to be unrivalled as a comedian.

Thanks to his education and his early associations, the sympathies of Mr. Mathews are wide, and he is completely separated from the actor who is "all actor," and who knows, nor cares to know, no world beyond the realm of paint and tinsel. Mr. Mathews is not one of those humourists who "set the table in a roar," but he is, nevertheless, fond of bright, sparkling society, and is an interesting and delightful addition to any circle. He has often been asked why he does not retire, and his reply is that he believes in the maxim of young Rapid, "keep moving." "It cannot keep you from growing old," says the subject of this sketch; "but it does keep you from feeling old and getting rusty. Look at your men who retire. They crystallise. I will not. The best end a man can have is to die in harness."

Mr. Mathews is an actor who could ill be spared from the stage, and it is therefore to be hoped that, veteran as he is, he may yet delight and instruct English audiences for several years to come.

[The Portrait prefixed to this Memoir is copied, by permission, from a Photograph by Messrs. Elliott and Fry.]





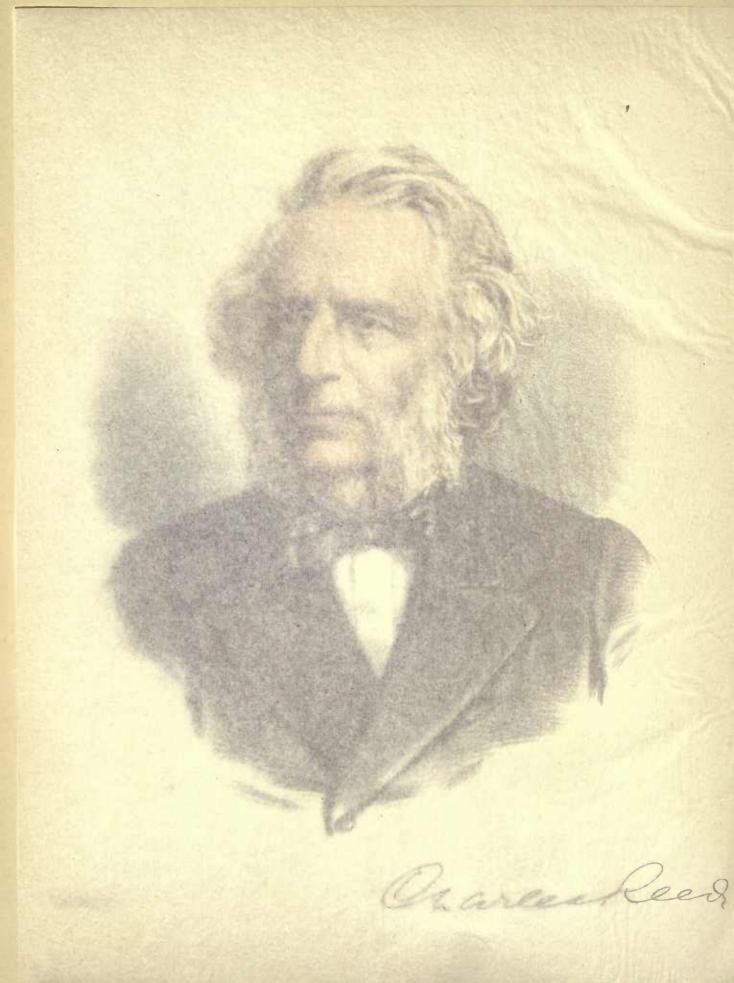
Cassell Fetter, & Galpin . Litho _ London E.C Orarles Reed

SIR CHARLES REED.

Which ignorance is considered to constitute bliss, and the partizans of the theory that the partizans of the theory that the partizans of the theory that the partizans of knowledge is a necessary adjunct to the well-being of mankind, may now be used to have been brought to a decisive issue. The fight has been a stabborn one; every angulated has been brought into play by both sides, and, in looking at the result, it is only fair to admit that the defeated have manfully maintained a strife which, in their opinion, was a perfectly justifiable one. They agreed with Bacon that "knowledge is power," and rather than furnish their fellow men with power, they thought it well to resource the stepping-power of knowledge. The comparatively recent appearance in the areas of several doughty presents of progress determined the result of the warfare, and the colours of the enemies appearance now wave triumplantly over the ground formerly held by their antagonists. The memoir, and to him assuredly belongs a considerable portion of the hard-war learners.

Charles Reed, the second on of Andrew Reed, D.D., the eminent philanthropist, and become of no tess than six reviews and hospitals, was born at Sonning in the county of Barles, on the 20th of June, 1919. He received his earliest education at the Hackney the received his earliest education at the Hackney the received his father; and he afterwards continued his studies at the Landon University, infere the charter of incorporation was granted. Having decided to measure in normalists, Mr. Reed proceeded to Leeds on the completion of his educational searces, and served his apprenticuship in a woollen factory in order to acquire a knowledge of the cloth trads. During his residence at Leeds, Mr. Reed formed an intimacy with the tamily of the late Mr. Edward Baines, M.P., and, in 1846, he married Margaret, the youngest daughter of that gentleman. Belinquishing the idea of becoming a manufacturer, Mr. Reed reserved to London, and entered into partnership with a firm of printers in Bolt Court, Fleet these old established Fann Street type foundry, where he is still the senior partner of the firm existing under the name of Reed and Fox.

Even as a young man Mr. Reed was conspicuous for the interest he took in educational matters, and when, in 1843, Sir James Graham, the then Secretary of State for the Home Department, introduced a Bill for the regulation of labour in factories, he combined with his father and other eminent Nonconformists in organising a powerful opposition to the measure. The opposition resulted from the insertion of some educational clauses which gave considerable offence to the Dissenters; and so vigorous was the resistance offered that Sir Robert Peel's Government ultimately withdrew the Bill. Two years later, Mr. Reed became a member of the Sunday School Union, of which Institution he is now Treasurer and President. He also



SIR CHARLES REED.

THE sore battle which has so long been waged between that section of the community by which ignorance is considered to constitute bliss, and the partizans of the theory that the acquirement of knowledge is a necessary adjunct to the well-being of mankind, may now be said to have been brought to a decisive issue. The fight has been a stubborn one; every argument has been brought into play by both sides, and, in looking at the result, it is only fair to admit that the defeated have manfully maintained a strife which, in their opinion, was a perfectly justifiable one. They agreed with Bacon that "knowledge is power," and rather than furnish their fellow men with power, they thought it well to remove the stepping-stones of knowledge. The comparatively recent appearance in the arena of several doughty champions of progress determined the result of the warfare, and the colours of the enemies of ignorance now wave triumphantly over the ground formerly held by their antagonists. Conspicuous amongst those who fought bravely for progress and education was the subject of this memoir, and to him assuredly belongs a considerable portion of the hard-won laurels.

Charles Reed, the second son of Andrew Reed, D.D., the eminent philanthropist, and founder of no less than six asylums and hospitals, was born at Sonning in the county of Berks, on the 20th of June, 1819. He received his earliest education at the Hackney Grammar School, an institution founded by his father; and he afterwards continued his studies at the London University, before the charter of incorporation was granted. Having decided to engage in commerce, Mr. Reed proceeded to Leeds on the completion of his educational courses, and served his apprenticeship in a woollen factory in order to acquire a knowledge of the cloth trade. During his residence at Leeds, Mr. Reed formed an intimacy with the family of the late Mr. Edward Baines, M.P., and, in 1846, he married Margaret, the youngest daughter of that gentleman. Relinquishing the idea of becoming a manufacturer, Mr. Reed returned to London, and entered into partnership with a firm of printers in Bolt Court, Fleet Street. He subsequently retired from the printing business, and succeeded Mr. Alderman Besley in the old established Fanu Street type foundry, where he is still the senior partner of the firm existing under the name of Reed and Fox.

Even as a young man Mr. Reed was conspicuous for the interest he took in educational matters, and when, in 1843, Sir James Graham, the then Secretary of State for the Home Department, introduced a Bill for the regulation of labour in factories, he combined with his father and other eminent Nonconformists in organising a powerful opposition to the measure. The opposition resulted from the insertion of some educational clauses which gave considerable offence to the Dissenters; and so vigorous was the resistance offered that Sir Robert Peel's Government ultimately withdrew the Bill. Two years later, Mr. Reed became a member of the Sunday School Union, of which Institution he is now Treasurer and President. He also

assisted Mr. Samuel Morley, M.P., in organising the Congregational Board of Education, out of which the Homerton Training College sprung.

Sir Charles is the author of several useful and interesting works. In 1841 he published a little volume entitled "The Infant Class in the Sunday School," for which he was awarded the first prize in a public competition. To him belongs the credit of being the first to propose a Free Library for the City, and a pamphlet on this subject, published in 1855, entitled "Why Not? A Plea for a Free Library," did much towards securing that desirable end. After pointing out the benefits which must accrue from such an establishment, Mr. Reed concluded his remarks by stating that he desired to see the people, the "mighty folk" of labour and industry, lift themselves up, and exercise with a manly spirit of self-reliance the powers of mind with which they are endowed. "Taught," he says, "to depend not on charity, but upon their own efforts, we shall have a people whose true elevation will be hailed by all the good as conducing to the safety and prosperity of our great community. Here is an object in which all men may patriotically unite, and I do desire to put knowledge within the reach of all men, upon the principle of helping those who help themselves." A lengthy paper read at the Poultry Chapel, on May 13th, 1858, on the facts of the religious revival in America-referring to the "great revival" which had a short time previously shaken the United States—was published by order of the Committee of the Congregational Union, and is full of interesting information regarding a subject which comes prominently before the world from time to time. "Our Sunday Schools: their Weak Points," was published in 1866, and in this work the author gave his opinion that the weak points were—1. A low and incorrect view of the object. 2. A limited and partial area of operation. 3. An agency largely deficient in essential qualifications; that is to say, the requirements were, a higher aim, a wider scope, and teaching power. "Diamonds in the Dust," an instructive tale for Sunday-school scholars, was also published in this year. But the most important work, from a general point of view, which has proceeded from the pen of Sir Charles Reed is the "Historical Narrative of the Plantations and Settlements in Ulster," which was compiled whilst he was Governor of the Irish Society, a body responsible for the proper disposition for public uses of the annual sum of nearly £13,000 arising from property in Ireland. So favourably was this work received by those whom it principally interested, that the Corporation of Londonderry passed a vote of thanks to the author. Jointly with his brother, the Rev. Andrew Reed, M.A., Mr. Reed published, in 1863, "Memoirs of the Life and Philanthropic Labours of Andrew Reed, D.D." It is an admirably written book, and furnishes an unvarnished account of his father's career as a preacher, a philanthropist, and an author. As a signal proof of the view taken by others of the philanthropic labours and administrative ability of Mr. Reed, it may be mentioned that he was appointed the English executor of Mr. George Peabody, and trustee of his buildings for the poor of London-offices carrying with them duties of the most important description.

The popularity of Sir Charles Reed at Hackney, with which place he has been associated from his youth, was strikingly exemplified in the General Election of 1868, when he became for the first time a candidate for Parliamentary honours. There were no less than six candidates for the seat, but he was returned at the top of the poll by a very large majority. Soon after entering Parliament Mr. Reed introduced the Sunday and Ragged Schools' Bill—a Bill for exempting buildings used exclusively for ragged and Sunday-schools from the payment of rates. "You might as well," said Mr. Reed, in concluding a powerful speech on the subject, "tax the life-boat, the lighthouse, or the fire-escape, as schools which try to rescue poor children from the

temptations of the streets." This measure was strongly opposed by Mr. Gladstone, the head of the Government, and also by the leader of the Opposition; but Mr. Reed succeeded in carrying it through all its stages by overwhelming majorities.

Later on, Mr. Reed drew the attention of Parliament to the insufficient accommodation for the conveyance of workpeople into and out of London by the Metropolitan lines of railway, and endeavoured to procure the insertion in all Metropolitan Railway Bills of clauses which would compel the several companies to provide trains at convenient hours and at reasonable fares. Mr. Reed's suggestions have, in a certain measure, been since carried into effect.

The Elementary Education Bill, introduced by Mr. Forster into the House of Commons in 1870, was strongly supported by Mr. Reed, who saw in it the promise of an entire revolution in our system of national education. In supporting the measure, he spoke very warmly on the subject of religious teaching. He said that a new party had appeared in the country, and they advocated a system void of religion, which was "pure secularism," and they dignified it by the name of "education." If he (Mr. Reed) knew the meaning of words, this was a misapplication of terms. Children were compound beings: they were gifted with a moral and an intellectual nature, and if we desired to reclaim and to resene we must deal with the heart as well as with the head, and that was true education. Mere knowledge would never keep boys out of crime, though it might make them clever enough to keep out of prison; and it would serve no good end to the State to make children a mere herd of reading and writing machines. The neglected children of the country were most in need of the kindly influences by which conscience was touched, virtue implanted, and character moulded and fashioned; and the power of the teacher rested mainly in such forces as had their ultimate appeal in God's Holy Word. The secular system separated knowledge from wisdom; but "The fear of the Lord was the beginning of wisdom;" and this "fear of the Lord" was true religion. could not always teach it, for they did not know it. They were willing that we should teach it-witness three millions of children entrusted voluntarily to the Sunday-schools, and no one objected. . . . He held that the teacher was the proper person, next to the parent, for unsectarian religious teaching; and no high-minded teacher would consent, in his moral training and the discipline of his school, to be prohibited from referring to God's authority as above his own. The Bill was not all he desired; but it was a fair and practical measure. It contemplated the education of every child in the realm. It did not break up the existing machinery of the country, nor did it break down the self-reliance of the people. It recognised the parental duty, and it required the parent to pay. It did not burden the country with needless taxation; it proceeded upon the wholesome maxim that a man valued what he paid for. It did not enforce religion, neither did it proscribe it. It secured liberty to teach it or notand to hear Bible-reading or not. Its only test of merit was secular, and its aid was given on such results alone. The management of the rate schools was popular, the inspection alone was Governmental; and this Bill was a part of a great whole, which, when perfected, would give to this country what it had never yet had-a national system. It commenced with the elementary schools, advanced to the middle-class, proceeded to the public schools, and ended with the universities; a plan by which he trusted it might be easy for any clever child to ascend the ladder of merit, helped where he needed it, and hindered by no test or unequal conditions, from the English village school to the honourable places of the universities of the land.

In 1871 Mr. Reed, having the welfare of a large body of deserving public servants at

beart, moved in the House of Commons, "That the employment by the State of upwards of 20,000 persons in the department of the Post-Office on the Sabbath day is not justified by any public necessity; and that, in the opinion of this House, it is desirable that the exemption from Sunday labour enjoyed by the letter carriers of London, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Belfast, and one hundred and fourteen other post towns, should be extended to all letter carriers and rural messengers throughout the United Kingdom." He presented petitions signed by 16,800 persons in favour of his motion, and proceeded to inquire why, if London with its four millions of inhabitants could do without a Sunday delivery, should the country have it? "If," said Mr. Reed, "senators, bankers, merchants, traders, and foreigners of this huge centre of the world can do without a Sunday collection or delivery, cannot the whole country do the same?" He pointed out that the telegraph might be used up to a late hour on Saturday, and reminded his hearers that even to the convict and the pauper the day of rest is given; and concluded a powerful speech by expressing a hope that the Prime Minister would follow the pattern of an illustrious predecessor, Sir Robert Peel, and rise in his place and say, "It is the will of the people of England, that the Sabbath day shall be respected, and therefore I support this motion." The motion did not, however, meet with the support of Mr. Gladstone, and was, at his suggestion, ultimately withdrawn, a resolution by the Chancellor of the Exchequer being substituted to the effect that it was desirable to reduce by all prudent means the Sunday labour now performed by public servants; and that it was expedient that an official inquiry should be instituted with a view to ascertaining how far the labour now performed on Sunday might be reduced. Although the views of Mr. Reed were not earried out in their entirety, his motion was unquestionably the means of initiating several important reforms in connection with the delivery and collection of letters on Sunday. During his Parliamentary career Mr. Reed brought before the notice of the House of Commons many matters which only a genuine philanthropist would consider worth while taking up. But nothing was so small—or, for the matter of that, so large—that Mr. Reed could not spare it some portion of his time and attention; and it was, therefore, with much regret that his constituents witnessed his retirement from active political life in 1874. In the previous year the Queen had, on the recommendation of Mr. Gladstone, conferred the honour of knighthood on Mr. Reed, a distinction of which he was pre-eminently worthy. It is, of course, a fact, that the immediate cause of Sir Charles Reed's withdrawal from Parliament was the result of the General Election of 1874. He was prevailed upon to come forward as the Liberal candidate for Hackney, and was a second time returned; owing, however, to some informality in connection with the balloting, the election was declared void. "Ill blows the wind that profits nobody," and Sir Charles himself, far from feeling any mortification at his ill-success, hailed it as a joyful deliverance, and resolved not to enter Parliament again. His heart was set on a work which required for some time his presence outside the House of Commons; and having to make his selection he renounced a political career.

No sooner had the Elementary Education Bill passed into law, than Sir Charles made its successful working the great object of his desires, and accordingly presented himself as a candidate at the first election of the members of the London School Board, when he was returned at the head of the poll for the borough of Hackney. Of the three persons nominated for the office of Chairman of the Board, Sir Charles Reed was one, the others being Lord Lawrence, and Mr. McCullagh Torrens, M.P. Lord Lawrence was elected Chairman, and Sir Charles, being second on the list, was elected Vice-Chairman. At the end of three years

(in 1873), during which period a prodigious amount of labour and thought had been expended in carrying into operation the multitudinous provisions of the new educational scheme, Sir Charles Reed succeeded Lord Lawrence as Chairman of the Board, the duties of which onerous position he continued to discharge in a manner which has gained him the eulogy of all classes.

The statement made by Sir Charles Reed, as Chairman of the School Board for London, at the first meeting after the recess, on the 29th of September, 1875, contained a large amount of valuable information on the all-important subject of education. After referring to the number of schools already opened and under the control of the Board, the number of children on the rolls, the per-centage of attendance, and to the improved system employed with regard to pupil teachers, Sir Charles proceeded to make some very cogent remarks respecting the criticism to which the School Board was subject at the hands of rating authorities and others. "If," said Sir Charles, "I refer to opposition encountered by the Board in certain quarters, it is not to express surprise or annoyance, yet neither is it to offer apology. The complaints do not come from the Legislature which passed the Act, which it is our duty simply to administer, or from the magistrates who enforce its penalties, but from local authorities who have periodically to meet our precepts. It can be no matter of surprise that gentlemen upon whom is cast the duty of raising funds for our expenditure should take occasional opportunities of criticising the proceedings of the Board. It is, no doubt, a thankless office to have to increase the heavy weight of local burdens by a rate levied for purposes over which they have no direct control. It becomes us, therefore, to treat with courtesy all proper representations from the rating authorities and vestries of London. One of our earliest resolutions had this very end in view. By it we agreed to supply, every week, printed copies of our proceedings to each vestry. Every memorial addressed to this Board has received respectful consideration. We sit in public, our debates are fully reported, and one principal object in the public opening of our larger schools is to afford an opportunity to the ratepayers in each division to become acquainted with our work, and thereby with the reasonableness of our requirements. Unfortunately, some of our constituents have often been led to believe that the hard-earned money they contribute is wastefully applied, and that future years will only witness larger demands. It might be well if at the same time they were reminded of the enormous expenditure upon children in workhouses and reformatories, and of the fact that rates for the poor are paid without protest every year amounting to ten times any sum this Board has ever asked for the far nobler and more promising work of education." There are many people who maintain that the London Board-schools are too costly—that much more money has been expended on their erection than was necessary; but comparing the expenditure for this purpose with that of nineteen large towns, it is found that the Metropolis stands favourably in the list. To quote the Chairman's words, "Our structures [then 139 in number] are simple yet substantial, attractive while cheap. To erect barrack-like buildings, with mean appointments, would be to forego an important part of our influence upon the children; I allude to what has been fitly called "the passive education of taste," carried on by the surroundings of a child in school, by the schoolroom, with its furniture and simple decorations, and by the insensible effect of the teaching, all of which permeate the child's life and tend to elevate its nature." In concluding his very able and interesting address, he said that, standing as they were on the threshold of a year in which the work of the Board was not likely to be less arduous than in any of its predecessors, nothing but a high and disinterested motive could sustain the members of the Board. Such a motive was, however, supplied by their common

and earnest desire to train the youth of London, by a sound education, to habits of frugality, industry, and virtue. Looked at even from a pecuniary point of view, it is of incalculable benefit to the community that these qualities should be developed in the young; but those who, like themselves, were practically acquainted with the homes of many of the children—if homes they might be called—and had contrasted the demoralising effects of such an atmosphere with the cleanliness, bright companionships, and happy influences of the schools, were able to work on with a firm conviction that such processes must tend to lift the children up to stronger manhood and purer womanhood. To hesitate in the work would be fatal to its success. "Each year has brought us great results, and if we are faithful and unswerving we shall yet accomplish our cherished purpose, only let this, which is my final word, be also our motto for the future: 'Less than thorough will not do it.'"

The practical usefulness of Sir Charles Reed is not confined to this side of the Atlantic. In 1873, the year in which the Evangelical Conference for the promotion of Christian union was held at New York, Sir Charles visited America, and then for the second time. A third visit was paid in 1876, when he attended the Philadelphia Exhibition, at the special request of the English Government, in his official capacity of Chairman of the London School Board. He was selected to act as the President of the Judges on Education; and for the distinguished services thus rendered he received the honorary title of LL.D. from Yale University.

At the Social Science Congress held at Brighton in October, 1875, Sir Charles Reed acted as President of the Education Department, and made use of the opportunity to deliver an elaborate address on the subject of Elementary Education. He said that half a century had been occupied in discussing theories, and that the nation, wearied with debates which lead to no common understanding, had at length resolved upon a system of education, and was now engaged from one end of the land to the other in working out one of the boldest acts of modern legislation. He stated his belief that the basis then being laid was equal to sustain the weight not only of the elementary schools, but of elementary, middle, and higher schools, so graded that the transition might be easy for meritorious scholars of the poorer classes to positions in which they will enjoy the advantage of those splendid endowments, their own rightful inheritance, then being released for the uses of the people, and to be held henceforth under their control. Sir Charles, in speaking of early endowments, very properly pointed out that these bequests of former times betoken a patriotic interest in the instruction of youth for which too little credit has been given; and that we should be doing a grave injustice were we to ignore the services rendered in this and other countries by the pioneers in the cause of education. When the history of English primary schools is traced, little of recorded opinion can be found beyond the will of a testator or the conditions of some ancient trust. We know, however, that Alfred the Great urged the parental obligation to educate the young; and to the Mendicant Friars we owe the first example of the ragged-schools, though they were far too prudent to call it by that name. Lord Say appears to have been among the earliest of our pious founders, for Jack Cade (in II. King Henry VI.) is made to address him thus: "Thou hast most traitorously corrupted the youth of the realm in erecting a grammar-school, and whereas before our forcfathers had no other books but the score and the tally, thou hast caused printing to be used; and, contrary to the king, his crown and dignity, thou hast built a paper-mill. It will be proved to thy face that thou hast men about thee that usually talk of a noun and a verb, and such abominable words as no Christian ear can endure to hear." Of course the words put into the mouths of Shakespeare's characters must always be taken cum grano salis, but there

is generally some foundation for the remarks so made. Adverting to the opposition encountered in carrying out educational and other necessary reforms, Sir Charles drew attention to the fact that two centuries ago the Lord Keeper Guildford incurred great obloquy in London for putting into force a compulsory Act for cleanliness and health, and for diverting the sewage to the river Fleet. The proprietors and tenants were amazed that any one should require them to carry the festering poison from their doors. But after a while they remarked "that a singular good had been done unto them;" and North, who records the fact, says, "Thus unthinking people are averse to their own interests till it is forced upon them, and then they will be thankful for it." To take a later instance, when, in our own day, it was decreed that foul sewers like the Fleet should no longer empty themselves into the Thames, but every house send its contribution to a main drain, with its outfall miles away, a great outcry was raised, until now, when the scheme is reported as complete, every murmur is forgotten in satisfaction at the healthiness of the Metropolis and the sense of security against pestilence. "History," said Sir Charles, "repeats itself; an enterprise incomparably greater than either of these has been undertaken not only in London but throughout the country. It is a cause of thankfulness, and even of surprise, that this gigantic work of educating the masses of the young has been carried on with so little of friction and so much of substantial advantage. It is the part of those who are working for great issues to remember that intricate processes and discouraging hindrances must ever lie in the path to success, and that they can well afford to be at once fearless and patient. No one," he went on to say, "presumes to judge of a building while the scaffolding still stands, and, for our part, we are content to leave it to the generation now under instruction to deliver its verdict upon the efforts which have cost us years of unremitting toil. Of this we may be assured, that the supremacy of England among the nations will be determined, not by guns or ironclads, but by the sterling character of the people. Her hope lies with her sons and daughters now under training in her schools, who, if wisely guided, may avoid the errors of their fathers, and achieve a work in the light of which ours may gladly be forgotten."

It has already been mentioned that Sir Charles Reed continues to fill the post of Chairman of the London School Board, but it should be added that his re-election by the new Board in 1876, the election of members being made triennially, was most cordial and unanimous. It is well worthy of notice that the onerous duties of this post are discharged gratuitously, a curious fact when we consider, for instance, that the Chairman of the Board of Works, whose labours are certainly not heavier, is remunerated at the rate of £2,000 a year. The record of Sir Charles Reed's labours in connection with the School Board would not be complete without a passing reference to the graceful tribute paid to him by Lord Napier and Ettrick at the last meeting of the Board, which dissolved at the close of 1876. After moving that a cordial vote of thanks be given to Sir Charles for the admirable manner in which he had presided over the work of the Board for the previous three years, his lordship said that when he looked back over the road which the Board had traversed during that period, and considered that it had been diversified by conflicts, it was satisfactory at least to remark that there was one spot, one act, one incident, upon which all their thoughts could repose with perfect satisfaction, he meant the selection of their Chairman. When Sir Charles Reed assumed the Chair he had every claim to the sympathy, to the respect, and to the confidence of the Board. His name had long been connected with the philanthropic and educational work of the Metropolis, and he had been from his youth a labourer in the cause, and had completed his early training in the

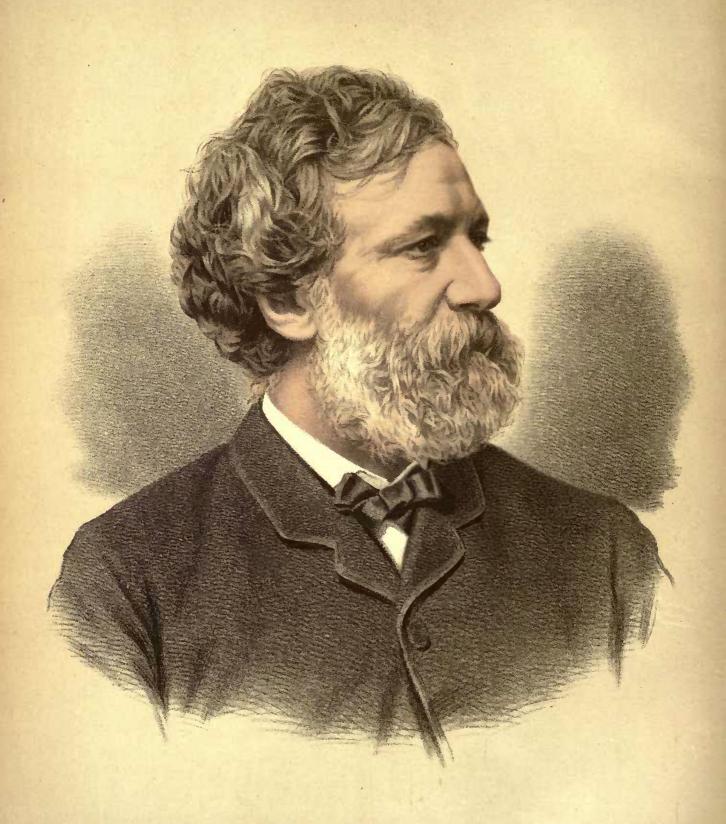
House of Commons—the greatest school for acquiring a knowledge of public business, whilst his experience as Vice-Chairman of the first Board had given him a knowledge and a command of the specific interests intrusted to his charge to which no other member of the Board could pretend in an equal degree. The expectations of the Board had been more than realised. The Board gratefully recognised his unremitting diligence, his attendance at the Board and Committees, his attendance at the inauguration of schools, and his vindication of the School Board policy. His whole thought, strength, and time had been devoted to the work, not in a spirit of cold officiality, but in a spirit of faith and love and self-sacrifice. And this had been done without any reward except the approval of his own conscience. The most conspicuous part of the Chairman's functions had been presiding over the debates of the Board. This duty had been conducted with impartiality. The Chairman had commanded not only their respect, but their attachment and affection. His power had been temporarily exercised, but his influence had been felt, and if the discussions at the Board had been marked on rare occasions by moderation and forbearance it was owing to the character and example of their Chairman, even more than to his ability.

In addition to the office he holds as Chairman of the London School Board, Sir Charles Reed is a Conservator of the River Thames, Representative of the Corporation of London for Irish Estates in Ulster, a Fellow of the Society of Antiquaries, and a Justice of the Peace for Middlesex and Westminster.

Sir Charles Reed took a very active part in the organisation of the Caxton Celebration of 1877, his great experience in all matters connected with printing and the manufacture of type entitling him to lead the van of any movement calculated to contribute to the information of the people, and to shed lustre upon the memory of the man who is generally admitted to have been the first to introduce into England one of the most useful of arts.

In conclusion, it may with truth be said that the subject of this memoir is one of those men who pursue the tenor of their way along the highways of the world without having regard to the many formidable obstacles with which they may find themselves confronted. Difficulties may arise, but he will not admit them to be insuperable, and the word "impossible" has no place in his dictionary. When the many charitable and educational enterprises with which Sir Charles Reed has during the past forty years been connected are passed in review, it is a cause for wonder that he has contrived to effect so much, and brings the reflection that many others who have had equal opportunities of doing good have failed to put their shoulder to the wheel with that determined earnestness which is so characteristic of the gentleman whose benevolent carcer has here been recorded.



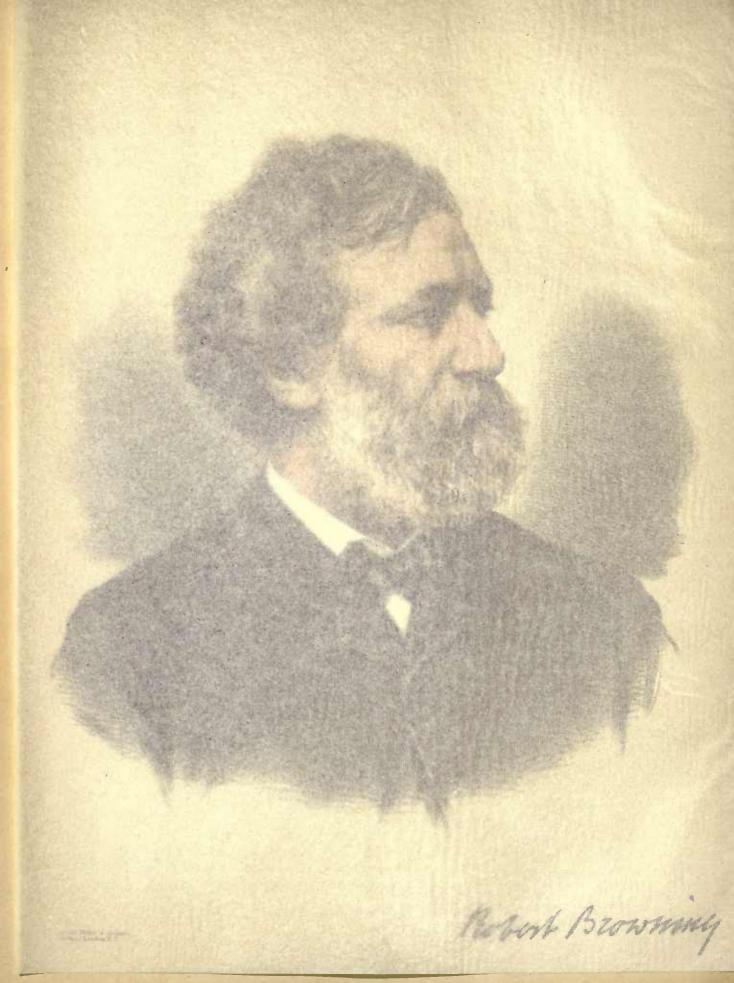


Robert Browning

ROBERT BROWNING.

FITTH exprisionances of public eminics was after more clearly exemplified than in the case of A. Robert Browning. For emaily half a content this distinguished poet has been pouring forth works which, not exclusive their corrected defect, and charged with passages of the very loftiest order of protes. Yet the receipte of his sauters, from the first publication of "Pauline" some fire-and-first some ego, but not progressed to sile some ratio that we have witnessed in the case of very offer white at emitted by the firewalter scenaries, to this day, a scaled book with many of the manner and owner had be the wish; it is now bewood his power to acquire mendately in the colleger come of the term. A reside noward, however, is not to be consumed by markings bushed, but he the whall and the goal which he kinnelf since at from the outest of his school, and it we moved the laboure of Mr. Browning in this light, we shall probably discover that, so far from declarating against Fate, he is happy in the approxiation of those whose spinion he values, and whose intalligent comprehension of his life's work is the greatest tribute he could receive. There is another aspect, also, in which his poems may be regarded. Having written them, he confidently bases them to the judgment of posterity. "Surely, where thought so bears soul, soul in time was permanently bide." The poet himself has sung that "o'er folsehood, truth is surely sobowed; " and the real conqueror is not he who slavishly makes it's peace with the prosent. If the homers which accrues to Mr. Browning in his own generation be limited, the carriest conviction will nevertheless be borne in upon the conscientions student of his works that when lives per sended stal tabesers remain, a just and durable fame will attach to the winther of wither Breat and the Buch."

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ROBERT BROWNING.

THE capriciousness of public opinion was never more clearly exemplified than in the case of Robert Browning. For nearly half a century this distinguished poet has been pouring forth works which, notwithstanding their manifest defects, are charged with passages of the very loftiest order of poetry. Yet the number of his readers, from the first publication of "Pauline" some five-and-forty years ago, has not progressed in the same ratio that we have witnessed in the case of any other writer of eminence. Mr. Browning remains, to this day, a sealed book with many of the masses; and even had he the wish, it is now beyond his power to acquire popularity in the ordinary sense of the term. A man's reward, however, is not to be measured by another's bushel, but by the ideal and the goal which he himself aims at from the ontset of his career; and if we regard the labours of Mr. Browning in this light, we shall probably discover that, so far from declaiming against Fate, he is happy in the appreciation of those whose opinion he values, and whose intelligent comprehension of his life's work is the greatest tribute he could receive. There is another aspect, also, in which his poems may be regarded. Having written them, he confidently leaves them to the judgment of posterity. "Surely, where thought so bears soul, soul in time may permanently bide." The poet himself has sung that "o'er falsehood, truth is surely sphered;" and the real conqueror is not he who slavishly makes his peace with the present. If the honour which accrues to Mr. Browning in his own generation be limited, the cornect conviction will nevertheless be borne in upon the conscientions student of his works that when lives are ended and labours remain, a just and durable fame will attach to the author of "The Ring and the Book."

Of the personal life of Mr. Browning little is known, nor is there much of import to communicate. He was born at Camberwell on the 7th of May, 1812, thus being three years younger than the only other writer who may be said, with him, to stand at the head of contemporary poetry in England, Alfred Tennyson. Mr. Browning was educated at home, but attended a few of the first lectures in London University, of which his father was one of the original supporters. He has received from Oxford the honorary diploma-degree of Master of Arts, and he is now an Honorary Fellow of Balliol College. His learning is more varied and extensive than that of any other poet—Mr. Swinburne approaching him most nearly in this respect—and there are few existing prose-writers even who are his equals in erudition. In 1834 he went to Russia, and in 1838 and 1844 to Italy, where he became thoroughly acquainted with the country, its literature, and its people: many of his subsequent poems bear testimony to this. The year after, Robert Browning met Elizabeth Barrett Moulton-Barrett, who at the time of their meeting had already become one of the most distinguished of living writers of poetry. They were married at the parish church, St. Marylebone, on the 12th of September, 1846, when Miss Barrett was in her thirty-seventh year, and Mr. Browning in his thirty-fifth. Mrs.

Browning possessed, with a frail body, a highly poetic temperament and a spirituality of mind rarely witnessed. After fifteen years of the most perfect happiness—a union of two such highly-gifted spirits rarely, or probably never, having been before recorded—Mrs. Browning died in Florence on the 29th of June, 1861. She left a son, who was born in Florence, and who is touchingly referred to in her poem "Casa Guidi Windows." He still lives, and is pursuing the profession of an artist. Mr. Browning, who is the intimate friend of many of the most distinguished men of the day, inspires but one sentiment—that of regard and affection. In society, he charms all with whom he comes into contact by the urbanity of his disposition, and the simplicity and kindliness of his manners.

The first poem written by this author-before he attained the age of twenty-despite its lack of artistic finish, exhibits many remarkable passages, to have been the work of a mere youth. He describes "Pauline" as a fragment of a confession, and his earliest attempt at "poetry always dramatic in principle, and so many utterances of so many imaginary persons, not mine." Few are the poets, however, either of the past or present, whose blank verse at nineteen has rivalled that in which this poem is composed, and of whose quality the invocation to the Man of Calvary may be referred to as an example. The poem, retained in the later editions of Mr. Browning's works, with no emendations—and solely to prevent its surreptitious republication from the earlier and misprinted edition—is valuable as indicating the class of work which afterwards proceeded from the poet. But the idea that it is the analysation of the writer's own soul is erroneous. It exhibits the same extraordinary devotion to psychological analysis which is so characteristic of Mr. Browning's later works; but it should not be taken for more than that which it pretends to be, viz., a dramatic monologue. Its successor, "Paracelsus," published in 1835, is formed upon a more ambitious scale. Yet here the direct personal nature of the poetry is apparent; the poet draws realities, not abstractions; men who think, feel, and act—whose emotions we can trace, and of whose individualities we acquire the most distinct perceptions. Taking for his theme that which Marlowe and Goethe have expanded in the great tragedies associated with their names, Mr. Browning has given us in Paracelsus a man who, though imbued with the same intense thirst to know and to enjoy to the fullest capacity of man's nature as previous heroes, is yet perfectly original and distinct from preceding creations. He has raised a being of lofty proportions out of the gross charlatan of history. As regards the versification of the poem, it is, together with most of its author's works, very uneven. In certain passages it is not too much to say that it rivals Shakespeare; in others, on the contrary, it falls to Mr. Browning's lowest ebb of merit. Lest the language of the former half of the preceding sentence should appear to be exaggerated, let us fortify our opinion by the following quotation, in which Festus addresses the dying Aureolus Paracelsus:-

"Fest. That God shall take thee to his breast, dear spirit,
Unto his breast, he sure! and here on earth
Shall splendour sit upon thy name for ever.
Sun! all the heaven is glad for thee: what eare
If lower mountains light their snowy phares
At thine effulgence, yet acknowledge not
The source of day? Their theft shall be their halo:
For after-ages shall retrack thy beams,
And put aside the crowd of busy ones,
And worship thee alone—the master-mind,
The thinker, the explorer, the creator!

Then, who should sneer at the convulsive throes
With which thy deeds were born, would scorn as well
The sheet of winding subterraneous fire
Which, pent and writhing, sends no less at last
Huge islands up amid the simmering sea.
Behold thy might in me! Then hast infused
Thy soul in mine; and I am grand as thou,
Seeing I comprehend thee—I so simple,
Thou so angust.

* * *

Par. Festus!

Fest. I am for noble Anreole, God!

I am upon his side, come weal or woe.

His portion shall be mine. He has done well.

I would have sinned, had I been strong enough,
As he has sinned. Reward him, or I waive
Reward! If thou eanst find no place for him,
Ho shall be king elsewhere, and I will be
His slave for ever! Thoro are two of us!"

Many passages fully equal, perhaps superior to this, could be culled, but they will not so readily bear detaching from the context. The whole poem is distinguished for boldness of thought, and judging from this production alone, the critics might well have prophesied that there were few poetic heights to which its author would not attain. Besides being the development of a soul's history—whose death with its purposes unaccomplished is not equivalent to defeat—"Paraeelsus" exhibits many touches of the poetry of outward nature, similes and metaphors delicate and true, and at times large and powerful.

To this venture succeeded the tragedy of "Strafford," issued in 1837, and dedicated to Macready. It was produced on the stage, with that distinguished actor in the chief character. The drama, however, failed, two of the chief reasons probably being that an English public likes some alleviating measure of the love element in a play-which it did not obtain here-and that it is difficult to excite an interest in historical characters, especially characters like that of Strafford, which, after all, appeal but little to the common apprehension. Even the historical plays of Shakespeare are failures when produced, unless the interest of the audience be quickened by the aid of gorgeous accessories and spectacles. Popular, too, as Alfred Tennyson is, he has been unable greatly to kindle public enthusiasm for the historical drama. "Sordello," published in 1840, is a return to Mr. Browning's old manner, but with added beauties and aggravated defects. It is this poem in particular which has so exasperated the critics. It was laughingly affirmed that no one could understand any portion of the poem but the first line and the last, which run thus respectively: -- "Who will, may hear Sordello's story told," and "Who would, has heard Sordello's story told." It is the fashion, however, with some critics to decry that as obscure and unintelligible which gives them considerable difficulty of apprehension. Undoubtedly "Sordello" is not a work which can be read with the ease and freedom of Campbell's lyries, or Longfellow's "Psalm of Life;" and similar compositions noticeable for their simplicity; but its spirit and purpose may be very largely gauged with a fair amount of application. Its involutions of thought and expression are apt to be rather harassing; but if labour be expended upon it, Occasionally bright gleams of genius break through the clouds, like labour will be rewarded. lightning in a dense atmosphere. The general consensus of opinion, however, is against the poem,

as being one which the author ought not to have written, and one which a busy world has no time to read. But in this view there possibly mingles much of the feeling peculiar to the devotee of the "circulating library," who must have so much food every day, and must have it properly minced, so as to cause no difficulty or delay in mastication.

We now come to the series of dramatic works originally published by Mr. Browning, under the title of "Bells and Pomegranates." The first of these was "Pippa Passes," and it has not only the precedence in this respect, but is in many aspects the best of the dramas. The human interest attaching to the career of Pippa, the beautiful peasant-maid, is very strong, and the actual simplicity of the poet's characters seems to have begotten a transient simplicity of language, for all cau enjoy this drama, from varying standpoints, and find in it beauty, tenderness, and grace. Nor is passion by any means lacking, as witness the scene between Ottima and Sebald, murderers both, but swayed by an overpowering if guilty love. The contrast between the simple nature of Pippa, and the disturbed and complex nature of Ottima, is very striking. The work is full of thought and fancy—blossoms of real poetic growth, fragrant and beautiful. What an effective resetting of an old truth is that which recurs in "Pippa Passes!"—

"All service ranks the same with God— With God, whose puppets, best and worst, Are we: there is no last nor first."

Next came "King Victor and King Charles," and then the "Dramatic Lyrics," published in 1842. It was in the latter volume that Mr. Browning asserted his superiority in a certain class of effort over all his contemporaries. In a series of abrupt but graphic pictures he has given us transcripts of human character and passion. The style is sometimes jerky, and we cannot trill out his melody so simply as we can that of other lyric writers; but in these efforts of Mr. Browning we perceive a strength and vigour not to be found in the productions of Mr. Tennyson, or of any other living poet. It is impossible for us to extract the chief of these lyrics; but let those who have not read them, read them now; and those who have read them, read them anew. Could any language more clearly bring within our vision that memorable ride, when the good news was brought from Ghent to Aix, than that employed by the poet? Where is the pathos truer and more natural than that to be found in "The Lost Leader?" while the Cavalier Tunes absolutely ring with music. These lyrics for ever disposed of the charge that Mr. Browning was deficient in melody and rhythm. For variety compare "Through the Metidja to Abd-el-Kadr" with "Beautiful Evelyn Hope is dead;" and "Saul," with its striking versification, with "Home Thoughts from Abroad," or "Any Wife to Any Husband." To the lyries succeeded "The Return of the Druses," in which Mr. Browning again goes abroad for his theme, which he manipulates with great skill. But the tragedy does not touch English sympathies, although it is more carefully constructed than many of the author's dramas. Death is a conspicuous element in the play, and the situations in which it occurs are strong and intensely dramatic. "A Blot on the 'Scutcheon' was another of those efforts of Mr. Browning to obtain a hold upon the stage, He again failed, however, though why in this case it is somewhat difficult to perceive, unless it be that he gave the public too striking a glimpse of the real tragedy of life as it is enacted around There is scarcely any single piece of Mr. Browning's which could be called artistically perfect, and this drama forms no exception to the rule; but it is truly tragic, and in parts beautiful. The encounter between Tresham and Mertouu in the third act is most realistic, and the soliloquy of Mildred in the opening of the second scene of the same act is charged with conflicting emotions,

which find a fitting sequel in the remaining portion of the scene. The play, altogether, is noticeable for its fervour, and the simple delineation of one passion, rather than for any great variety or breadth of treatment. If its limits are restricted, however, there is within these limits the exhibition of much dramatic strength.

"Colombe's Birthday," inscribed to Barry Cornwall, is a charming play in five acts. Colombe, Duchess of Juliers and Cleves, after having possessed her duchy for a year, is, upon her birthday, disturbed by the appearance of a claimant, Prince Berthold, the lawful heir. Valence, an advocate, defends her claim with so much grace and spirit, that the duchess loves him, and rejects the offer of the prince's hand. She finally retires from the duchy, with the man she loves, to the home in which her childhood was spent. Such is, in brief, the ontline of a plot worked out with much poetry and subtlety of thought. The duchess is a noble creation, natural and beautiful, and her presence seems to impregnate the whole piece with grace and sweetness. For the moment the sterner aspects of love and life have been forgotten, and the poet has strayed into paths which we could wish had been more frequented by him. Colombe has been compared to one of Shakespeare's women, and not, it must be added, without justice. In the "Dramatic Romances," which first saw the light in 1845, we meet with that wonderfully dramatic lyric describing the incident between Napoleon and the soldier-boy who brought the news of the capture of Ratisbon, and who fell dead at his chief's feet after proclaiming it. In the same series also appeared "The Flight of the Duchess," "The Pied Piper of Hamelin"-known wherever the English language is known-and "The Statue and the Bust," all remarkable for their construction and treatment. But the two dramatic poems in the series entitled "Bells and Pomegranates," which have perhaps fixed the attention of critics by their excellences more than their fellows, were "A Soul's Tragedy" and "Luria." In publishing the latter, and dedicating it to Landor, Mr. Browning announced that it was his last attempt for the present at dramatic poetry. The first-named piece possesses a double interest—that derived from witnessing the delineation of characters acting upon each other from opposite motives, and that derived from the exhibition of skill on the part of the author in dissecting and manifesting the individualities of whom he treats. In "Luria," the hero is worthy of the old masters. He is conceived on a large and imposing scale. His passions and his abilities are great. He devotes himself to Florence, and meets with the reward too often extended to the patriot ingratitude and disgrace. He dies tragically just at the hour when restitution is about to be made, and his greatness and virtues proclaimed to the world. Walter Savage Landor, to whom we have already referred, and who exhibited in his own verse a remarkably fine and original vein of poetry, expressed himself in no stinted terms as to the quality of Mr. Browning's faculty. "Few of the Athenians," he said, in writing to a friend, "had such a quarry on their property but they constructed better roads for the conveyance of their material"-language which may be regarded both as a just tribute and a rebuke. Again, in 1845, he thus referred to our author: "I have written to Browning: a great poet, a very great poet indeed, as the world will have to agree with us in thinking. I am now deep in the 'Soul's Tragedy.' The sudden close of 'Luria' is very grand; but preceding it I fear there is rather too much of argumentation and reflection. It is continued too long after the Moor has taken the poison. I may be wrong, but if it is so you will see it, and tell him. God grant he may live to be much greater than he is, high as he stands above most of the living." "Christmas Eve and Easter Day" was written in Florence, in 1850, and after the appearance of this volume, the poet was silent for nearly five years. In "Men and Women" were several transcripts of character, equal in vigour to anything hitherto achieved, notably "Andrea del Sarto," "Bishop Blougram," and

"Fra Lippo Lippi." Many of his occasional lyries have found their imitators, though this compliment is one not so easy of payment to Mr. Browning as to his great contemporary, Mr. Browning's lyrics are more suggestive than finished in style, and though they invariably attract and charm the poetic temperament, they are as a rule beyond the reach of imitation. The critics doubtless regard this inaccessibility to reproduction as an advantage, but it may be safely asserted that many of the dramatic romances and lyrics by Mr. Browning are the finest things of their kind which have been written for more than one generation past. Any poet, of any time, might have congratulated himself upon writing such a ballad as "Hervé Riel," or such a magnificent lyric as "Saul." And there are others worthy of bearing them company. "In a Balcony" is justly regarded as one of Mr. Browning's most perfect poems, and we get here truly vivid mind-pictures, calculated to remain upon the memory, within as small a compass as the most diligent search would gather elsewhere. The story is simple, the language nervous and expressive in the highest degree, and the power of love is exemplified in many wonderful touches. The poet lifts the veil from life, and shows it forth to the world as it exists with its endless interchange of mood, love, and passion. The story of a woman bartering power, wealth, and her own loftier position, for love is by no means new, but it comes upon us with singular freshness of treatment in this emotional poem. Of the "Dramatis Persone" of the author we have little room left to speak. "Mr. Sludge, the Medium," "Abt Vogler," "Rabbi Ben Ezra," and others, are characters not likely to fade from the recollection when once impressed upon it. To the life-like skill with which they have been drawn further testimony scarcely needs to be borne. In the same volume in which these sketches originally appeared, were other and different examples of the ripening fruits of Mr. Browning's lyrical genius.

Every poet of acknowledged calibre has written, at some period in his history, one work which the world holds to be his masterpiece. It is not always, however, the work which the poet himself would thus choose to designate. We do not know Mr. Browning's own view in this respect, but the poem of all others that he has written to which the world attaches the title of chef-d'œuvre is confessedly "The Ring and the Book." The mere reading of this work—extending as it does to upwards of twenty-one thousand lines—is a great undertaking; and if this be the case, what must have been the intellectual labour involved in writing it? From one point of view, notwithstanding its immense bulk, the poem is the most perfect of all Mr. Browning's works, for it exhibits his method in all its fulness; and whatever attributes give a charm and value to his poetry are present here in their full strength and vigour. It is the production of a strong mind at the period of its greatest strength. The plot of the work is briefly this: The poet, perambulating through the streets of Florence, finds on a bookstall a volume of miscellaneous documents-some printed and others written-referring to the trial of one Count Guido Franceschini, and four assassins who had been in his pay, for the crime of murder. Three persons had fallen victims to the merciless count, viz., his wife Pompilia, and her aged father and mother, Pietro and Violante Comparini. The poet, interested in the story, sought for other records bearing upon the terrible transaction, but he was not successful, although the knowledge of the Count Franceschini's crime had once heen the common property of all Europe. With such material as he possessed, however, the story was related anew. It appears that the count married Pompilia at Rome, and conveyed her to his palace at Arezzo, together with her parents. The latter, however, subsequently left Arezzo, and returned to Rome, whence they were followed, after the lapse of time, by the countess, who was accompanied by a certain young priest, Giuseppe Caponsacchi. The countess gave birth to a child in Rome, and shortly after this event her husband, with his four accomplices, arrived in the Eternal City, and completed their diabolical purpose by the murder of Pompilia and her parents. The trial of the murderers then ensued. After their condemnation, an unsuccessful appeal against the sentence was made to the Pope, and the murderers were put to death, according to the forms of punishment generally awarded to persons of their varying social rank.

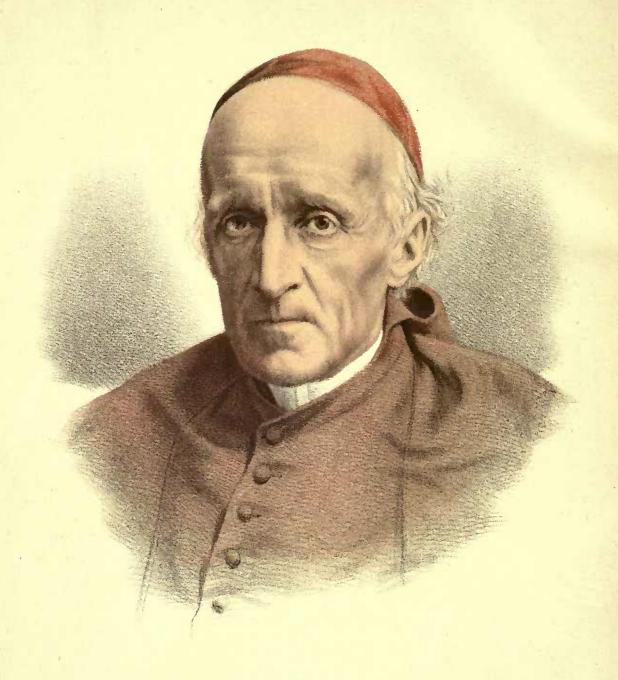
Guido alleged that the wife palmed off upon him was not the daughter of Pietro and Violante Comparini at all, but a waif from the streets of Rome. He also made charges against his wife of an infamous character, and stated that her reputed parents had published the knowledge of their imposture in Rome to avoid payment of dowry, and as an act of revenge upon the count. In addition to these crimes Guido alleged that his property had been stolen, and that his supposed child was one not entitled to bear his name. For the other side, all these statements were reversed, and it was affirmed that Guido hated his wife and her parents with an implacable hatred, and that he committed the murder when he felt that he might gratify his antipathy to his wife without prejudice to his future prospects of wealth, that is, when Pompilia had an heir, to whom the property of the Comparini would naturally accrue. All the efforts of Guido to save his life failed, and upon representation of the facts, Pope Innocent XII. ordered his execution. Such are the elements out of which one of the longest epics in the world has been constructed. We need scarcely say, however, that in this work plot is little, and character is everything. This great pyschological poem was evidently written by Mr. Browning for the purpose of elucidating the mysteries of fact and nature, and of human action. The incidents upon which the work is founded are in themselves neither promising nor unusual, but they afford groundwork to the poet for the dissection of human passious, and the removal of the veil which interposes between the heart of man and the outer world. A brother poet, referring to Mr. Browning's genius in its broad manifestations—in an article devoted to "The Ring and the Book "-well observes, "Mr. Browning exhibits to a great extent in all his writings, but particularly in this work, a wealth of intellect and a perfection of spiritual insight which we have been accustomed to in the pages of Shakespeare, and in those pages only. His fantastic intellectual feats, his verbosity, his power of quaint versification, are quite other matters. The one great and patent fact is that, with a faculty in our own time at least unparalleled, he manages to create beings of thoroughly human fibre; he is just without judgment, without pre-occupation, to every being so ereated; and he succeeds, without a single didactic note, in stirring the soul of the spectator with the concentrated emotion and spiritual exaltation which heighten the soul's stature, in the finest moments of life itself." That this criticism is just will be freely confessed by any diligent student of Mr. Browning's masterpiece. Most of the poet's work is striking for its manifestation of intellectual power, but "The Ring and the Book" bears the palm from all other poems of the century for the depth of its spiritual insight and One critic considers that "the thought, the vocabulary, the imagery, the wisdom lavished upon this story would equip a score of ordinary writers, and place them beyond danger of neglect." It is the human applying the touchstone of humanity to its creations. Let whatever faults are alleged against the work be admitted, and it is still a colossal monument of genius.

The literary feeundity of Mr. Browning is marvellous. Subsequent to the voluminous series of works already cited, he published, in 1871, "Balaustion's Adventure," which is distinguished for its sweetness, and a polished chasteness of style not always characteristic of the author. It

is permeated with the spirit of the Greek drama, of which Mr. Browning is an enthusiastic (admirer. Following this, came a poem in another method, "Fifine at the Fair," which, together with its successor, "Prince Hohenstiel-Schwangau, Saviour of Society," may be considered the least worthy of all the works by this writer. "Red Cotton Night-cap Country; or, Turf and Towers," a volume published in 1873, and dedicated to Miss Thackeray—who, like Mr. Browning, has studied the Breton country and its inhabitants—exhibited little if any advance upon its immediate predecessors. A recovery to his old and superior manner was, however, made with the issue of "Aristophanes' Apology," in 1875. This includes the "Herakles" of Euripides, and forms the last adventure of Balaustion. The fall of Athens is sung in rich, nervous diction, while the details of the poem afford further evidence of the poet's analytical skill, and his power to place before us ancient scenes and characters with dramatic force and precision. This poem abounds in passages rarely equalled in its author's other works. In "The Inn Album," and "Paechiarotto, and other Poems"—the latter published in 1876—there is an indication that the critics have at length aroused this veteran in the poetic art. After so successful a career, it may well be doubted whether it were thus worth the while of Mr. Browning, working as he is for immortality, to expend his wrath upon writers who weigh him temporarily in their limited scales of criticism and find him wanting. An anthor who has written "My Last Duchess," "Pippa Passes," and "The Ring and the Book"—to say nothing of many other noble and genuine poems —needs to be provided with no other weapon against his adversaries. In 1877 Mr. Browning completed a translation of the "Agamemnon" of Æschylus, a work undertaken at the desire of his friend Thomas Carlyle.

Mr. Browning, though now more than sixty years of age, possesses all the mental activity and muscular vigour of a man of but half his age. No poet ever commenced his career with richer gifts from the gods. Intellectual strength; the capacity to appreciate the soul of beauty in all things, if not always the felicity of expressing it; a vivid and powerful imagination; dramatic insight of the highest quality; an open and generous heart, which recoils from the approach of everything that is false and base; and a mind that is keenly perceptive, strongly receptive, and thoroughly original—such are the equipments with which he began. Of recent years the critics have charged him with incoherency and obscurity, and have dwelt upon these things to the detriment or exclusion of his transcendent merits. Mr. Browning's admirers, however, may still hope, and we trust the event will prove not without reason, that the last rays of his genius will be such as can only proceed from a great and wise luminary in the poetic horizon.





first 'Hail Mary!'"

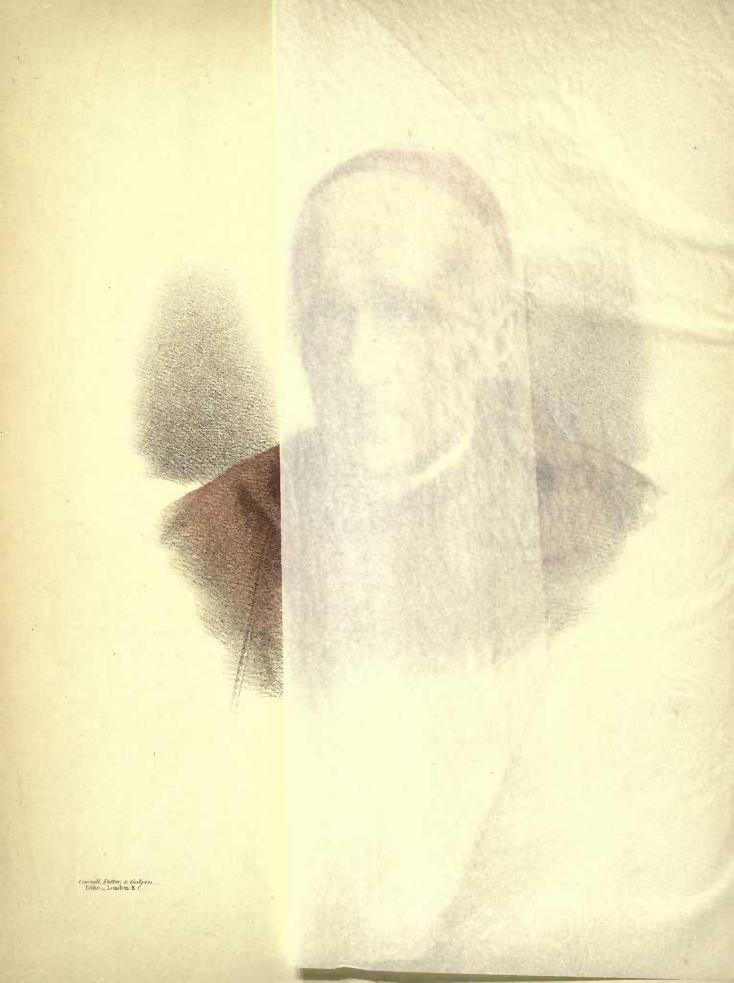
many years member or Penrhyn.

T is always difficult to water the materials, I so to say, still in a state of the say and the say and the say moment, but it is not easy to speak an advantage of a manufacture of the wall to seak if he would be honest, when the writer knows that written, and he feels at every step flow to the state of the would be natural susceptibilities of those have privacy of the privacy of the second that the second he were intruding. And this distribute is greatly in the sales of the case of Cardinal Manning, the subject of the tree source has, in release analysis to the state of the may without offence call when he has, to the Roman Church. the deficulty, however, I have a standard the standard or done away with, if we that it is the life of the man and the large of the present bo our readers; and that the same they have been been been opinions, because they have led to express of active with have been been been at the opinions of him whose life we are writing, and not our over opinions, they are to mornion.

The fearney to Rome whole Dr. Markens manye, of the most so say, vid Oxford, Cardinal Manning has accomplished by about a different route. This name was not mixed up with the academical movement at the marke the approach from outside the walls of Oxford, and, to a great extent, the was influenced, of courses by the "Tracts;" but he did not entirely sympathise with thom Frank XII he hangly deponted. "While I was in the Church of England," 1 March 12 loyal to her. Would be reserved to the said a 'Hail Mary!' until I had gone before a notation and assent as placed in the Church of England. I did this in the City, and there I present Washington Bridge to be ge's, Southwark, and said my

Henry Edward Masses and the last last last ridge, Hertfordshire, a village which might almost the warmen and the confines of Middlesex. It is famous for little and the churchyard, and the old yew-tree by its side, and the desired to be four thousand ears old. His father, William Manning, Esq., was a second of England, and for

A few miles on Harrow; and there the early education of Henry contemporaries at Harrow the Cardinal enumerates Lord Dalhousie, late Governor-General of India Herman Merivale, Archbishop



CARDINAL MANNING.

It is always difficult to write the biography of a living man. Not only are the materials, so to say, still in a state of flux, and one's decisions liable to be reversed at any moment, but it is not easy to speak so plainly as a biographer is bound to speak if he would be honest, when the writer knows that the subject of his biography will read the pages he has written, and he feels at every step that he must be cautious not to wound the natural susceptibilities of those into the privacy of whose life he sometimes feels as though he were intruding. And this difficulty is greatly increased when, as in the case of Cardinal Manning, the subject of the biography has, in religious matters, taken a step which one may without offence call unpopular—when he has, to speak plainly, passed from the English to the Roman Church. The difficulty, however, is diminished, though it is not altogether done away with, if we reflect that it is the life of a man, and not the history of his opinions, we are here to present to our readers; and that, even while we are obliged to touch on those opinions, because they have led to courses of action which have become historical, it is still the opinions of him whose life we are writing, and not our own opinions, that are in question.

The journey to Rome which Dr. Newman made, if we may so say, vid Oxford, Cardinal Manning has accomplished by quite a different route. His name was not mixed up with the academical movement at all. He made the approach from outside the walls of Oxford, and, to a great extent, alone. He was influenced, of course, by the "Tracts;" but he did not entirely sympathise with them. From Tract XC. he largely dissented. "While I was in the Church of England," the Cardinal says, "I honoured the Church of England, and remained loyal to her. Would you believe it?" he added, "I never once said a 'Hail Mary!' until I had gone before a notary-public and resigned my position in the Church of England. I did this in the City, and then I crossed Blackfriars Bridge to St. George's, Southwark, and said my first 'Hail Mary!'"

Henry Edward Manning was born July 15th, 1808, at Totteridge, Hertfordshire, a village which might almost be called suburban, standing, as it does, close on the confines of Middlesex. It is famous for little save the monument to Lord Cottenham, in the churchyard, and the old yew-tree by its side, asserted in local traditions to be two thousand years old. His father, William Manning, Esq., was a London merchant, formerly Governor of the Bank of England, and for many years member of Parliament for Evesham, and afterwards for Penrhyn.

A few miles only, as the crow flies, from Totteridge stands Harrow; and there the early education of Henry Edward Manning was acquired. Among his contemporaries at Harrow the Cardinal enumerates Bishop Charles Wordsworth, of St. Andrews, Lord Dalhousie, late Governor-General of India. Lord Abercorn. Lord Claud Hamilton, Mr. Herman Merivale, Archbishop

Trench, and Mr. Sidney Herbert. "In sooth, a goodly company!" In due course our young Harrovian passed from Harrow to Oxford, and instead of a school "boy" became a University "man." He matriculated at Balliol College, Oxford, and graduated B.A. in 1830, in first-class classical honours. In the same distinguished position with himself were Bishop Hamilton, afterwards of Salisbury, and William Palmer, called "Cursing Palmer," to distinguish him from another William Palmer, who was called "Liturgical Palmer." The latter was so named as the author of the "Origines Liturgicae;" the former gained his less enviable epithet from having, before he seceded to Rome, fulminated an attack on Protestantism, every paragraph of which ended, ungracefully enough, with an anathema. On the same class-list with Mr. Manning were also Professor Anstice, afterwards of King's College—famous for his elegant lyric translations from the Greek tragedians—and Henry Wilberforce.

Subsequently Mr. Manning was elected Fellow of Merton College, and, having taken orders in the Church of England, became one of the Select Preachers of the University. The Select Preachers constitute a kind of reserve-force on which the Vice-Chancellor can fall back when the regular preachers fail, and may be taken to represent the élite of the University as far as pulpit oratory is concerned. They are ten in number, chosen out of the Doctors and Bachelors of Divinity and of Civil Law, and the Masters of Arts of the University of Oxford or Cambridge, or of Dublin. The office is tenable for two years only, and no one can be appointed again until after the interval of a year. The Select Preachership is thus a continually fluctuating body, and affords an illustration of those whom, from time to time, Alma Mater delights to honour by sanctioning their formal occupancy of the University pulpit. Among the names of Select Preachers immediately preceding Mr. Manning, we find Richard Whately, D.D., John Keble, M.A., John Henry Newman, M.A., Frederic Oakeley, M.A., Walter Farquhar Hook, M.A., George Moberly, M.A., and others.

In 1834 Mr. Manning was appointed Rector of Lavington, with Graffham, in the county of Sussex, the value of the united benefices being set down in the Clergy List as a little over £400 a year, with a population of between seven and eight hundred. Out here, on the seeluded South Downs, the rector vegetated quietly for five or six years, engaged in pastoral work, his next promotion being to the archdeaconry of Chichester, in the year 1840. We have reason to believe that, up to this time, no marked proclivities had been shown towards that then nascent school of theology with which Archdeacon Manning was afterwards identified, and from which he has since passed to Rome itself. The estimation in which he was held by one of the foremost men in the English Church at this time is conveyed in the following extract from a letter, dated January, 1841, written by Julius Hare, Archdeacon of Lewes, and one of the authors of "Guesses at Truth," to his brother, Marcus Hare: - "Our new bishop has just been bestowing a great blessing on the diocese, by appointing Manning Archdeacon of Chichester. There is nothing in the world I have longed so anxiously for, the last seven or eight months, as to have him for my colleague, counsellor, and helper; and there is hardly anything that could have given me so much delight. It is about the most perfect appointment that ever was made; but since my own beloved bishop's death I had scarcely dared hope for it. Sterling knows him, and knows how much practical wisdom he has. He is holy, zealous, devoted, gentle, and to me almost as affectionate as a brother, so that to me he is an especial blessing." Later on, in the same letter, he says :- "Manning is a truly wise and holy man, devoted, self-sacrificing, mild, and loving." The Cardinal, however, smiles when Archdeacon Hare's letter is thus put in evidence. He says:—"Hare and I used to fraternise practically, but not theologically." His Eminence points to passages in his own works where he says

he can now trace the workings of those ideas which eventually culminated in Catholicism. He had no idea that it would do so then, but at that period he assigned to the Anglican Church the functions and prerogatives he now attributes only to Rome. The Cardinal himself refers us back to so early a date as 1835—sixteen years before his secession—for traces of what we may perhaps be permitted to call unconscious Romanism in his theological system. A less rigorous analysis relegates this date to a later period; but our own information comes from the very fountain-head. Taking up, for instance, a sermon on "The English Church: its Succession and Witness for Christ," preached at the Archdeacon of Chichester's Visitation (1835) by the Rev. H. E. Manning, then Rector of Lavington, and late Fellow of Merton, we find this sentence among its opening paragraphs:-"For the first fifteen hundred years of Christian antiquity, Christ's earthly Church was one, and His ministry one, till apostolic unity of faith and practice withered away in the hollow sameness of the Romish ceremonial." Fifteen years afterwards, in 1850, when himself Archdeacon of Chiehester, he wrote thus: - "We believe that the Church in England, as a member or province of this Divine kingdom, possesses, 'in solidum,' by inherence and participation in the whole Church, the inheritance of the Divine tradition of faith, with a share in this full and supreme custody of doctrine, and power of discipline, partaking for support and perpetuity, in its measure and sphere, the same guidance as the whole Church at large, of which, by our baptism, we have been made members. The Church in England, then, being thus an integral whole, possesses within itself the fountain of doctrine and discipline, and has no need to go beyond itself for succession, orders, mission, jurisdiction, and the office to declare to its own members, in matters of faith, the intention of the Catholic Church." We are, however, anticipating the chronological order of events in these quotations; but it is interesting to notice how the seed sown so early as 1835 sprang up and germinated at later epochs.

Between 1840 and 1848, Archdeaeon Manning published four volumes of sermons which attracted great attention and which are still read with interest by students of pulpit literature. They stood over against the sermons of John Henry Newman as representing the emotional more than the intellectual style. A generation ago, many a young minister could say some of Manning's sermons by heart. Excerpts have been made from them of passages calculated to afford comfort to those who mourn. There are in them passages of exquisite tenderness. A great living preacher, himself one of the most intellectual of pulpit orators, onee said that a sermon should be a "lyric poem." Many of Arehdeacon Manning's thoroughly come up to such a standard-for instance, the following utterances of the Archdeacon, in the sermon called "The Sleep of the Faithful Departed:"-"Their rest is not the rest of a stone, cold and lifeless, but of wearied humanity. They rest from their labours; they have no more persecution, nor stoning, nor scourging, nor crueifying; no more martyrdoms by fire, or the wheel, or barbed shafts; they have no more false witness, nor cutting tongues; no more bitterness of heart, nor iron entering into the soul; no more burdens of wrong, nor amazement, nor perplexity; never again shall they weep for unkindness, and disappointment, and withered hopes, and desolation of heart. All is over now; they have passed under the share. The ploughers ploughed upon their back and made long furrows; but it is all over, never to begin again. They rest, too, from the weight of 'the body of our humiliation'-from its sufferings and pains; their last sickness is over. They shall never again bear the tokens of coming dissolution; no more the hollow eye, and the sharp lines of distress, and the hues of fading loveliness. Now is their weariness changed into refreshment; their weakness into excellence of strength; their wasting into a spirit ever new; their broken words into the perfection of praise; their weeping into a chant of bliss." So, too, in the sequel of this sermon:—

"As we grow holier, we grow nearer to them; even now they are not far from us—we know not how nigh; as yet, for a time, the veil is drawn. We shall know all at His coming. It may be, we shall say—What! so near, and we could not see you? At times we could almost fancy we were not alone; but when we strained our sight, we saw nothing; when we listened, all was still."

The three series of "Sermons preached before the University of Oxford" were printed in the years 1844, 1848, and 1850 respectively, and stamped the preacher as a man of mark in the pulpit. But the tone was unmistakable, and, for those who had ears to hear, preluded the way in which the Archdeacon's thoughts were wandering.

Bearing in mind the position assumed, so far back as 1835, in reference to the Apostolical Succession in the Church of England, against what was then termed "the futile objection of the Papists," in reference to the Nag's Head Consecration, we next find Mr. Manning—for it was prior to the date of his archidiaconate—taking a prominent part in opposition to the appointment of the Ecclesiastical Commission. The Cardinal himself, mapping out his past course as none but he can map it, puts his finger on 1838 as the date of his first public act in the direction which eventually led him to the position he now occupies. He claims—and with evident sincerity that his course has been from first to last consistent—that is, from 1838 to 1851, when he openly left the Church of England. It is, of course, quite possible to concede this claim, and even to wish, for their own good and that of the Established Church, that others would follow out so logical a course. This overt action consisted in the publication of a letter, addressed to the Bishop of Chichester, on the subject of the Ecclesiastical Commission, followed up, in 1837, by the appearance of a small volume, called "The Rule of Faith," which was the expansion of a sermon preached in Chichester Cathedral at the Episcopal Visitation, and published at the request of the bishop and clergy. The Cardinal claims that he reproduced at this time Chillingworth's position, which is thus summarised in a note appended to "The Rule of Faith," in its enlarged form. Of Chillingworth he says:—"Few men had better reason to know the real points of controversy between the Churches of England and Rome than Mr. Chillingworth; for he had once been drawn by the arguments of Fisher, the Jesuit, to embrace the communion of the Romish Church, and to go over to their college at Douay. He was brought back again to England, and, it may be said, to the English Church, by the letters of Archbishop Land, then Bishop of London. . . . There are three great principles in dispute:—(1) Whether there exists any infallible judge of controversy; (2) Whether Scripture is the only sufficient proof of the faith; (3) Whether the Creed contains all necessary points of mere belief. The Roman Church maintains that there is a living infallible judge, who may, from time to time, declare, upon the sole proof of unwritten tradition, points of necessary doctrine, and add them to the Creed. . . . The Church of Eugland denies the existence of an infallible living judge; asserts that nothing may be required of any man as a point necessary to salvation but what may be read in Holy Scripture, or proved thereby; and also that the Catholic Creed of the four first General Councils contains all points of necessary belief."

Knott, Chillingworth's adversary, maintained the three Romish points, Chillingworth the three Anglican; and Mr. Manning, in 1828, probably as nearly as possible represented Chillingworth's posture of mind.

Such, too, was the attitude assumed in the work published by the Archdeacon in 1840, namely, "The Unity of the Church." This is generally looked upon as the first breaking of ground in the direction of Rome; but, as we have seen, the beginning is to be sought for earlier than this; in fact, it dates back as far as 1835. Manning had no actual personal connection with the Oxford School properly—that is, locally—so called; but the nearness of date in his development to that

of Keble's sermon is too close to be a mere eoincidence. The wave of thought which then swept over Oxford was a tidal one, and extended into quarters which seemed far distant from any academical influence. The impetus was given, and for the next ten years it only acquired intensity. Its direction was still the same.

At length the crisis came; and it was brought about by the Gorham decision. This now historic event, the result of which was to leave the question of baptismal regeneration virtually an open one in the Church of England, called forth a vigorous protest from Archdeacons Manning and Wilberforce and Professor Mill, who circulated the following letter and declaration among the elergy:—"Reverend Sir: The recent sentence of the Crown, in the case of Mr. Gorham's appeal, having shewn that the powers exercised by the State in the administration of ecclesiastical discipline extend even to the most purely spiritual questions of faith and doctrine, it becomes an absolute duty for those who are bound by oath and subscription to the existing state of the law, to examine and to declare in what sense they understand the supremacy to which, under such solemn obligations, they are committed. . . . Our present desire is to ascertain to what extent the necessity of obtaining an amendment of the statute law in this particular is felt; and our future intention is, if circumstances shall justify our hope, to endeavour to prevail on some members of the Legislature to undertake the conduct of this grave and momentous question." The declaration enclosed was: -- "(1) That we have hitherto acknowledged, and do now acknowledge, the supremacy of the Crown in ecclesiastical matters to be a supreme eivil power over all persons and eauses in temporal things, and over the temporal accidents of spiritual things. (2) That we do not, and in conscience eannot, acknowledge the power recently exercised to hear and judge in appeal the internal state or merits of spiritual questions touching doctrine or discipline, the custody of which is committed to the Church alone by the law of Christ. We therefore, for the relief of our own consciences, hereby publicly declare that we acknowledge the Royal supremacy in the sense above stated, and in no other."

Circumstances did not justify the hope expressed in this letter. The action of the Court, except so far as a few protests were concerned, was generally acquiesced in; and in 1851—the year of the Great Exhibition—Archdeacon Manning threw up his preferments, and joined the Church of Rome. He was received by the Rev. Francis Brownbill, in the month of April. We do not learn that he was re-baptised; but he went so far back in his religious experience as to be confirmed by the late Cardinal Wiseman, on the 13th of the same month. Then he started on his career for the priesthood, and was ordained by the Cardinal's desire. In three months from the date of his confirmation he was a full Romish ecclesiastic, having passed the various grades as follows:—First Tonsure, April 29th; four Minor Orders, April 30th; Sub-diaconate, May 29th; Diaconate, June 8th; Priesthood, June 15th, 1851. In the autumn of that year, Father Manning, as we must now call him, entered the Academia Ecclesiastica, in Rome, and remained there until 1854, engaged in theological studies, but still keeping up the connection with his mother-country by visiting England every summer.

During the very first of those vacation visits, an opportunity was afforded for showing the honour in which the new Father was held by the communion he had chosen. The Provincial Synod of Westminster met at St. Mary's, Oscott, and was opened July 6th, 1852. On the 7th, Cardinal Wiseman preached; and on the following Sunday, Father Manning addressed a large congregation of Roman Catholic clergy and laity, choosing for his text the words "Miscreor super turbas" ("I have compassion on the multitude," &c.). One cannot but picture the strangeness of the situation for the neophyte—such he even yet was—who had so newly

changed from one form of faith to another, and now found himself addressing a large body of ecclesiasties in the new communion to which he had passed. In less than two years afterwards—namely, at the opening of the year 1854—he was admitted to the degree of D.D. by the Pope, on the application of Cardinal Wiseman.

Then the period of his ecclesiastical study at Rome ended, and Dr. Manning commenced real work in England. He was desired by Cardinal Wiseman to found the Congregation of the Oblates of St. Charles, at Bayswater. This particular saint, who is described as the "soul of the Tridentine Council," and was canonised by Pope Paul V., was perhaps the fittest in the whole hagiology to receive the homage of so recent a convert; for some say the zeal of converts exceeds that of the habitués of a creed. It took three years fully to organise the new work, but it was accomplished in June, 1857, and Dr. Manning, who was elected Superior, held that position until April, 1865. He was appointed Provost of Westminster in 1857, and Prothonotary Apostolic in 1860. During the time of his residence among the Oblates of St. Charles, Dr. Manning preached at the Church of St. Mary of the Angels, Westbourne Grove, Bayswater; and many persons who had known him, as Archdeacon Manning, for an eloquent preacher renewed their acquaintance with him here. But he had now to a great extent assumed the rôle of the controversialist, and it was only by fits and starts that one heard a sermon in the least degree to be compared with Dr. Manning's Anglican utterances. Perhaps one of the most distinctive belongs to the close of the period we are now considering. It was that preached at the requiem of Cardinal Wiseman, in the Pro-Cathedral, in Moorfields, at the beginning of the year 1865. The "legend" borne by the deceased Cardinal consisted of the words, "Omnia pro Christo;" and Dr. Manning, with great taet and feeling, took for his text the same words—"All for Christ." He concluded—"We have lost a friend, a father, and a pastor, whose memory will be with us while life lasts. As one who knew him well said well of him, 'We are all lowered by his loss.' We have all lost somewhat which was our support, our strength, our guidance, our pattern, and our pride. We have lost him who, in the face of this great people, worthily presented the greatness and the majesty of the Universal Church. He has fallen asleep in the midst of the generous, kindly, just, noble-hearted sympathy of the people, of the public men, of the public voices of England-a great people, strong and bold in its warfare, but humane, chivalrous, and Christian to the antagonists who are worthy to contend with it. He is gone; but he has left behind him in our memory a long line of historical pictures, traced in the light of other days upon a field which will retain its colours fresh and vivid for ever. . . . Bear him forth to the green burial-ground on the outskirts of this busy wilderness of men. It was his desire to die and to be buried, not amid the glories of Rome, but in the midst of his flock. . . . It is but the body of his death which you bear forth with tears of loving veneration. He is not here; he will not be there. He is already where the Great Shepherd of the sheep is numbering His elect, and those who led them to the fold of eternal life."

The rumour which destined Dr. Manning as the successor of Cardinal Wiseman turned out to be true. The appointment was a wise one on the part of the Pope; and the esteem in which these two men have been held by the English public, Protestant as well as Catholic—Cardinal Wiseman for his scientific attainments, Dr. Manning for his aid in social reforms—proves that, on the Protestant side, at all events, there has been laid to heart the great maxim of toleration—"In all things charity." Dr. Manning was consecrated second Roman Catholic Archbishop of Westminster, June 8th, 1865. The ambassadors of all the Roman Catholic Powers were in attendance, as also the representatives of the principal families belonging to that communion in England. During 1869-70 Archbishop Manning attended the Vatican Council, and by his

speeches and writings contributed very markedly to the passing of the decree which assigned infallibility to the Roman Pontiff.

Ten years from the date of his archiepiscopate-namely, in 1875-Archbishop Manning was raised to the dignity of a Cardinal. The elevation had been long expected by the Roman Catholic world. He received notice thereof early in March, left London for Rome on the 5th of that month, was created a Cardinal Priest in consistory of March 15th, took the oath and received the biretta on the day following, and the ring and crosier on the 31st. On the afternoon of the last-named day he took possession of the Titular Church of SS. Andrew and Gregory, on the Colian. About a thousand of the British residents in Rome, Protestant as well as Catholic, were present; and the new Cardinal, after an Italian address to the monks of St. Gregory—for he was now doctus sermonis utriusque lingua—preached a sermon in English, wherein he used with great adroitness the name of his titular church. "From this very Cœlian Hill," he said, "and from this spot whereon we now stand, there went forth on holy mission, in days long past, the first Archbishop of Canterbury. The name of the first Bishop of the see of Rochester, that of the first Bishop of London, and that of the first Archbishop of York, are inscribed on the walls of these cloisters. . . In days long before I could have dreamed of ever occupying my present position of a Catholic ecclesiastic, my heart yearned towards St. Gregory's on the Colian."

Of course it is no secret that the one wish of Catholics in general, and of the Cardinal in particular, is for the "conversion" of England, and the occasion was one which it was quite certain would be accepted as an augury. Though we do not, of course, accept this omen, we quite concede the fact that Cardinal Mauning has, since his Roman allegiance, and even since his elevation to dignities which might have provoked opposition, retained considerable influence in this country; while his views upon such topics as the Labour and Temperance questions, and the improvement of the working classes, have always been received by the British public with attention and respect. As a pulpit orator and a platform speaker, he enjoys a considerable reputation. In the former capacity we do not think him .equal to the Archdeacon Manning of days long past, but this may be explained by the change of his position; possibly, too, by some latent, unconscious prejudice on our part. We have honestly looked through the latest volumes of sermons to find a parallel with the earliest. Perhaps this is the nearest; it is taken from a volume published in 1874, and from a sermon on "The Joys of the Resurrection." There is, we own, a soupcon of the old style here:-"If for one moment the conflicts, the hatreds, the contentions, the jealousies, the warfares, the jangling, the discords of this world could be suspended—if for one day, from sunrise to sunset, sin could cease, even this world would be blissful. In that world shall be rest eternal; rest that is no temptation, warfare, or cross; rest within-heart, mind, soul, thought, affection, will, all in perfect harmony with the perfect will of Jesus. And—that which you perhaps will little realise when I say it—rest from toil, rest from labour, rest from eating bread in the sweat of your face—that which the multitudes and the millions of Christendom, in all lands and all languages, have for their earthly lot—the poor labourer, the tiller of the ground—those who wring hard sustenance out of the hard earth, who live lives of cold, pain, and disease, and privation, in houses that are bare, with hungry children, with those that are dearest to them languishing and fading for want of the food which their toil cannot supply. This is an earthly burden of which you who hear me perhaps know little. But in heaven 'They shall hunger no more, they shall thirst no more, neither shall the sun light on them, nor any heat; but the Lamb which is in the midst of

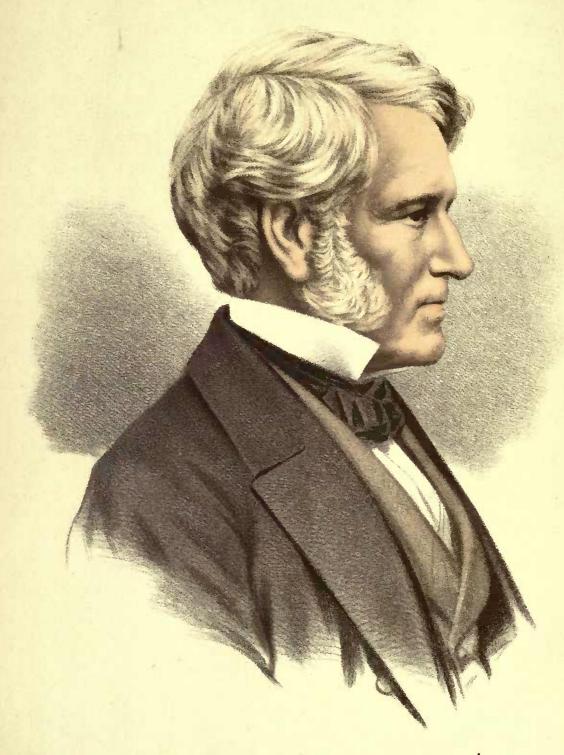
the throne shall rule over them, and shall lead them by the fountains of the waters of life, and God shall wipe away all tears from their eyes."

It is only fair to add, too, perhaps, as we have quoted freely from Cardinal Manuing's Anglican works, that, in a book dated 1866, and called "The Temporal Mission of the Holy Ghost," he has formally retracted certain statements of 1838, and 1841, and an expression used in a sermon preached before the University of Oxford on November 5th, 1843, where he said, "It would seem to be the will of Heaven that the dominion of the Roman Pontificate may never be again set up in this Church and realm."

For nine years the Cardinal has been a total abstainer from alcoholic stimulants, and has laboured by precept as well as by example to further that antidote to the bane of England which is afforded by the Temperance movement. On Whit Monday of the year 1877, a great demonstration of the Roman Catholic Abstinence League was held in the streets of London, under special patronage of the Government and police authorities. The procession, nearly a mile long, met on the Thames Embankment, and proceeded—viâ St. Martin's Lane, Seven Dials, Broad Street, Oxford Street, Park Lane, Piccadilly, St. James's Street, Pall Mall, Charing Cross, Parliament Street, and Victoria Street—to the site of the new Roman Catholic Cathedral, which is at present a piece of waste ground, full of pitfalls. This is a form of propagandism in which none will gradge Cardinal Manning the fullest success he can possibly compass. For the rest, although our mission is purely descriptive and biographical—not judicial—many of us will be able, notwithstanding the lofty eminence attained by Cardinal Manning, to see that the step he took in leaving the Church of England was made in the very face of ambition. He had all to lose and nothing to gain by it. The issue has, probably, surprised no one more than himself. Let us be content, as Dr. Johnson says, to leave these matters "with the Judge."

[The Portrait prefixed to this Memoir is copied, by permission, from a Photograph by Messrs. Eluott and Fry?



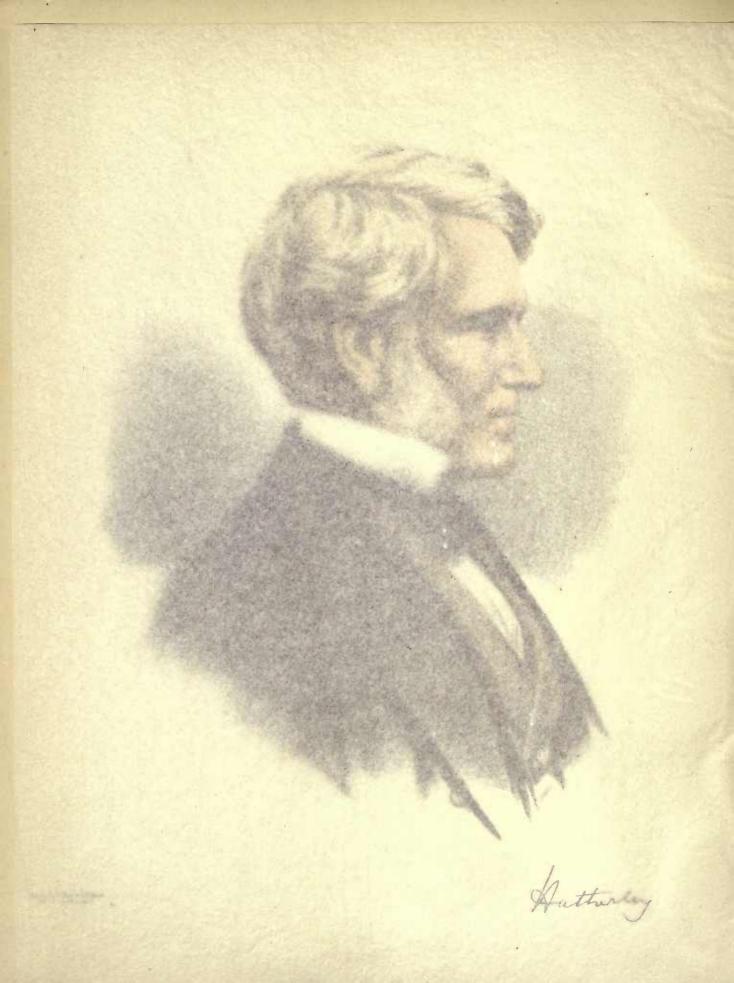


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THE RIGHT HON. LORD HATHERLEY.

WE have already abserved to the progress of our biographic sketches that England may well be ground of her flower of Lords, as she may indeed be of her great lawyers. But in an especial degree new ene be proud of her Chancellors, because in these latter we find the union of those high qualities which so largely contribute to the greatness of the former as one of the estates of our realm to which the making of our laws is committed, and to which our Constitution, heretofore collectively, and now by a select representation, has assigned the duty and properties of interpreting the laws themselves as the ultimate court of appeal. Lord That the wisdom of a law-maker is one, and of a lawyer is that such visdom, though diverse, is not inconsistent, the history of our country proves, and the lives of many of our great lawyers demonstrate that judicusl ability were eminently combined with skill and judgment in law-making. None have sombined these powers in a larger measure than some of the great men who have sat upon the Woodsack. "There is no office," writes Lord Campbell, in his Lives of the Lord Chancellors, " in the history of any nation that has been filled with such a long succession of distinguished and interesting men as the office of Lord Chancellor or Lord Keeper of the Great Seal of England. Generally speaking, the most eminent men of the age, if not the most virtuous, have been selected to adern it. To an English statesman as well as to English lawyers the narrative ought to be particularly instructive, for the history of the holders of the Great Seal is the history of our Constitution, as well as of our jurisprudence." But if we must admit with Lord Campbell there have been instances in which the holders of this high office were not always "if the splendour of Lord Bacon's genius and learning is obscured by the the memory of the infamens Jeffreys is unredestant by a the barticle of learning-happily for the honors of England, we have the dose at the line to our own, many illustrious instances in which the grant acres, the accomplete at the S. C. C. Consess rate " have been united in the holder of the Train Sual. In none do we was a second of the same of the subject of our present of the

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The family of Wood is one of some standing in Devonshire. We find them first in Exeter, and subsequently in Tiverton, where Matthew Wood was born in 1768. From his native place he went to London, where he rose to considerable eminence, becoming an alderman, and filling the office of Lord Mayor on two occasions. He represented the City of London in nine successive Parliaments preceding his decease in 1843, and was created a baronet in 1837. By his marriage, in 1795, with Maria, the daughter of John Page, M.D., he had several children, the second of whom, William Page Wood, the future Chancellor, was born in London on the 29th of November, 1801. In his eleventh year he was sent to Winchester College, where he remained till 1818. Then he went to Geneva, at the auditoire or university of which city he

continued his studies as a pensionnaire at M. Duvillard's, the professor of belles lettres there. In May, 1820, he went to Italy, in which country he travelled till the following October. At this time Queen Caroline had taken the bold step of returning to England to claim her royal rights and assert her innocence; and, in consequence, proceedings were commenced against her under the title of "A Bill of Pains and Penalties." It became necessary to collect evidence, and make other investigations in Italy in relation to this trial. Here the young Englishman rendered essential service, in interpreting the depositions of witnesses, and in other matters, and thus he made his first acquaintance with our legal procedure.

On his return to his native country, Mr. Wood entered Trinity College, Cambridge. course at the university was a distinguished one. In June, 1822, he obtained a scholarship on the foundation, and in January, 1824, he graduated as a Wrangler. This was the first year in which the Classical Tripos was held, but unfortunately his state of health did not permit his taking his place in it, for after the first day's examination he was obliged to withdraw, and thus failed to obtain the double honours of science and classics. In the October of the following year he was elected a Fellow of his college; and selecting the Bar as a profession, he studied Equity in the chambers of Mr. Roupell, and Conveyancing under Mr. John Tyrell, and commenced his legal career as a Chancery barrister in November, 1827. To the ordinary reader the details of the professional life of an Equity barrister, however successful he may be, present little to excite or to dazzle. There are no rhetorical dcelamation, no impassioned oratory, no exciting appeals to the feelings of a jury, or the sympathies of an audience, which have given a brilliant fame to Erskine and Brougham, and others whose names are familiar to us all. But in their place we recognise the mastery of calm reasoning, the profound aequaintance with a code whose origin is anterior to that of our Common Law, complex and intricate, full of the subtleties of ethical distinctions, and dealing with the moral obligations that bind the conscience, though unrecognised beyond its domain—that, in the language of Lord Bacon, will abate the rigour of the law and supply its defects, but will not break its strength or relax its sinews—these are the qualifications that are indispensable to a great Equity lawyer, and make its practice one of the most ennobling as well as the most enlarging of intellectual and moral exercises. Intellectually and morally the nature of Mr. Page Wood was in harmony with the branch of the profession which he had chosen, and he rose steadily to eminence and leadership. To his Chancery practice he added that of Parliamentary business, and his name is to be found frequently as pleading before Committees of both Houses. In 1841 increasing business compelled Mr. Wood to abandon either his Chancery or his Parliamentary practice. Accordingly, he adhered to the former, and in February, 1845, he was called within the Bar, on the recommendation of Lord Chancellor Lyndhurst; and in 1847 he was returned for the City of Oxford, on Liberal principles.

In February, 1848, Lord John Russell moved the second reading of the "Jewish Disabilities Bill," which was vigorously opposed, and a lengthened and interesting debate followed. It was on this occasion that Mr. Page Wood made his first important speech, which was justly characterised by Mr. Baillie Cochrane, in replying to it, as "a very able speech." In the course of his observations he said, "The honourable gentleman who moved the amendment called upon them as Christians to reject the Bill, but he, on religious far more than political grounds, and as a member of that Church which he believed to embody the purest form of Christianity, called upon them to support it. Twenty years had elapsed since he first signed a petition in favour of the Jews. He had often since then revolved the matter in his mind, and the lapse

of time and the accession of experience had only tended to strengthen his conviction that the removal of Jewish disabilities was a measure which was sanctioned by considerations of justice, truth, and policy." He then reviewed, in an elaborate argument, from the earliest period, the state of the Christian Church, to prove that religious opinions should be no disqualification for political station or the enjoyment of political rights, adding that "while it had pleased the Almighty, in His inscrutable wisdom, that a veil should be over the heart of the Jews, while passages were read in which Christians saw the bright dawning of the Sun of Righteousness, let them not deepen that gloom by the rank mists of human prejudice and passion." We have quoted these-extracts as illustrating the temper of the speaker's mind, showing that while profoundly impressed with the religious convictions of a Christian, he had the largest charity as a man, and the broadest liberality as a politician. He obtained a committee on the subject of the oaths, over which he presided, Lord John Russell, Sir Robert Peel, and Mr. Charles Wynne, The majority of the committee was of opinion that the prescribed being members of it. oath could not be taken without the addition of the words, "on the true faith of a Christian." Mr. Wood, on the other hand, maintained that these words were only the mode or sanction of swearing, not the substance of the oath; or, in other words, represented what was sworn by, not what was sworn to, and if so, that they could be dispensed with on known principles of lawthat a person should swear by what is most binding on his conscience. When Baron Lionel de Rothschild was returned for the City of London, in July, 1849, he was introduced and led by Mr. Wood to the table of the House to take the oath, and desiring to be sworn on the Old Testament, he was ordered to withdraw, and a debate ensued, in the course of which Mr. Wood spoke with great ability and learning. After three days' discussion, the Baron, on the 30th of July, was called to the table of the House and informed of the decision to permit him to be sworn on the Old Testament. Having taking the Oaths of Allegiance and Supremacy, he omitted in the Oath of Abjuration the words, "on the true faith of a Christian." He was again ordered to withdraw, and the debate was renewed, and notwithstanding the exertions of Mr. Wood and others, the House refused to permit the omission. In relation to this contest, we may note one curious anomaly that might have arisen, as shown by Mr. Wood. Had Baron Rothschild ventured to take his seat, he would, by a clause in the Act which enforced the oath, have become "a Papist recusant convict."

Acting on the same large and unsectarian views, Mr. Wood twice carried a Bill in the Commons to admit all persons, no matter of what religious opinions, to give evidence upon their solemn declaration, if they stated that they had conscientious objections to taking an oath. Though he failed in his efforts, the Bills having been thrown out by the Lords, the object was ultimately attained under the provisions of the "Common Law Amendment Acts." In the progress of the debates the absurdity of some of the oaths was amusingly shown by him by the production of the Queen's Bench roll of the oaths taken by all officers under the Crown, that the party would not "use his office to the injury of the Church by law established." This oath the King's Trumpeter had, amongst others, to take. But "the line should be drawn somewhere," as Dickens's barber observed, and another officer with higher duties, the King's Chimney-sweeper, was excused. Whether revolutionary blasts of the trumpeter, or incendiary acts of the chimney-sweep were more perilous, may be a curious question; but the latter, though excused from the oath, was not exempt from the penalties for omitting to take it.

Throughout his parliamentary eareer Mr. Wood was ever the promoter and the advocate of large and liberal measures, and a staunch defender of popular rights and freedom of election.

In this spirit he took charge of a petition at the request of Mr. (afterwards Sir John) Rolt, who, though a Conservative, had tried to open the borough of Stamford as an independent candidate. The borough belonged to Lord Exeter, who, it was alleged, constrained the electors to vote at his dictation, at the peril of being put out of their holdings; and the petition from onethird of the inhabitants prayed to be relieved by disfranchisement from this perilous privilege of voting. Mr. Wood moved for a Select Committee to investigate the charges in the petition. His speech was characterised by his seconder, Mr. D'Eyncourt, as being "as convincing and eloquent, as it was refreshing from its true constitutional spirit," and by Lord J. Russell, who supported him, as "very temperate in its tone, very clear in its statements, and very powerful in its arguments." In the course of his address he said, "He felt that when a peer of the realm stepped out of his proper sphere, and, not content with exercising his rights and influence in his own House of Parliament, interfered with the election of members of the other House, the Commons of England had a right to interfere also, and to tell that peer they would not allow such unconstitutional and illegal conduct, that he should confine himself to his own House." He carried his motion by a majority of one, and, with a committee whose sympathies were not very favourable to him, he prosecuted the inquiry zealously, and carried a resolution that, regard being had to previous elections, the last election had taken place under circumstances which led "many of the voters to vote under undue bias and constraint." In this year it was, too, that the question of the disestablishment of the Irish Church was brought forward. Upon it upright and conscientious men took different views, and we find throughout that memorable contest, which lasted over twenty years, those who in general were ranged on the same side in politics going into different lobbies upon that question. In the then small minority for the abolition of the Irish Church Mr. Wood took his place while he sat in the House, both in debate and in the lobby. He continued up till 1851 to sit below the gangway, and, in accordance with his large views of popular rights, voted in favour of Mr. Locke-King's motion, in opposition to the Ministry, for giving to the country a £10 franchise. On this the Government was defeated, and also on a motion of Mr. Disraeli's, and thereupon Lord John Russell resigned, in February, 1851, but again resumed the Premiership. One of his first acts was a very creditable acknowledgment of the ability and the sound political views of a man whose vote had helped to displace him. He sent for Mr. Wood, and told him that he had made up his mind to a large extension of the franchise, and added that he hoped Mr. Wood, upon that understanding, would not object to accept the office of Solicitor-General. To this proposition Mr. Wood acceded, and he was accordingly sworn in and knighted, being again returned to Parliament for the City This post Sir W. P. Wood continued to occupy till the resignation of the Russell Administration, in February, 1852. The short-lived Administration of the Earl of Derby was succeeded in December of the same year by the Coalition Ministry, with Lord Aberdeen at its head, and that nobleman offered Sir W. P. Wood his former post of Solicitor-General, or the office of Vice-Chancellor, then vacant. Accordingly early in 1853 he retired from political life, taking his seat as Vice-Chancellor on the Equity bench. In this high position Sir W. P. Wood continued till December, 1868, discharging his duties with zeal and ability, so that his decisions are justly regarded as of the highest authority for sound judgment and deep learning, and a comprehensive grasp of the great principles of Equity which he was called upon to administer. Just then two vacancies occurred in the Court of Appeal; the one, caused by the resignation of Sir John Rolt, was filled by Sir C. J. Selwyn, the other by the elevation of Lord Cairns to the Woolsack. Mr. Disraeli, who had then succeeded Lord Derby as Premier, offered the vacant place to Vice-Chancellor Page Wood, to whom Lord Cairns wrote expressing his hope that he would accept the office. A tribute so honourable and gratifying from men in whose political ranks he had never been found could not be declined, and Sir William was appointed a Lord Justice of Appeal on the 5th of March, 1868. A further mark of respect was accorded to him by his senior in office, Lord Justice Sclwyn, who, not having then been sworn in as a Privy Councillor, in the most handsome manner waived his right of seniority in that respect, and accordingly they were both sworn in on the 31st of March, Lord Justice Wood taking the precedence. At this period the Conservatives and the Liberals were arrayed under their respective leaders, Mr. Disraeli and Mr. Gladstone, on the great battle-field of the Irish Church disestablishment. It was a battle à outrance: the Ministry was defeated. A dissolution took place, and before the meeting of the new Parliament Mr. Disraeli resigned. His successor, Mr. Gladstone, offered the Great Seal to Sir Roundell Palmer; but that conscientious and high-minded man refused the Woolsack and a peerage which would commit him to a policy in relation to the Irish Church which he had persistently and consistently Mr. Gladstone then offered the post to Lord Justice Wood. With him the Church question was no impediment, and he accepted the offer. But before the offer was made to himself he had earnestly and sincerely endeavoured to induce Sir Roundell Palmer to look upon the scruples he entertained as arising not from an insurmountable principle, and unfeignedly urged him (as he truly wished) to accept the honour that was offered to him. In this, however, he failed; and on the 9th of December, 1868, Her Majesty in Council delivered to him the Great Seal as Lord Chancellor of Great Britain, and he was raised to the dignity of a Baron of the United Kingdom, taking his title from Hatherley of Down Hatherley, in the county of Gloucester. Nor were his talents or his learning unequal to this high office, and he fully sustained the judicial reputation which had grown through his occupancy of the less exalted places in the Courts of Equity. His decisions, like those of the most eminent Lords Chancellors, have been so netimes reversed, and in one or two cases when they came before himself in his higher sphere, he did not hesitate to join in the reversal or qualification of his own judgment, always displaying, as was justly observed of him by Lord Cairns (in Collingswood v. Collingswood, 4 H. L., p. 61), "that candour which is not the least conspicuous ornament of his character." Take them, however, altogether during his tenure of the Woolsack, they may hold their place, as sound and constitutional expositions of legal principles, beside those of the ablest men that have held the Great Scal. In the Upper House, Lord Chancellor Hatherley took his share in legislative measures, his principal speeches being on the Irish Church Acts, and Irish Land Acts, in 1869 and 1870.

It was, however, in 1872 that Lord Hatherley was subjected to one of those trials to which men in high station are so often exposed. Great responsibilities involve great risks, and the necessity of prompt action demands judgment and courage. The Privy Council Act, passed at the close of the session of 1871, provided for the appointment of four paid members of the judicial committee of that body, to consist of two Indian judges and two judges of the superior courts. Sir Montague Smith was transferred to the Council from the Common Pleas, the vacancy thereby created being filled by the promotion of the Attorney-General, Sir Robert Collier, on the 7th of November, 1871; and on the 21st of the same month he was transferred to a seat on the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council. Of his fitness for the office no doubt could be entertained, but the propriety of the appointment was protested against by Lord Chief Justice Cockburn in a letter of remonstrance to Mr. Gladstone, which the latter referred to

the Lord Chancellor, "as the transaction had been a joint one." The Chancellor wrote to the Lord Chief Justice: "The appointment has been made with a full knowledge on my part of the intention of Mr. Gladstone to recommend him (Sir R. Collier) for appointment as a member of the Judicial Committee under the Act. I have thus acted advisedly, and with the conviction that the arrangement was justified as regards both its fitness and its legality," and reserving his vindication and explanation for a more suitable opportunity. The Lord Chief Justice replied expressing his "mingled surprise and regret," and the correspondence, thus terminated, was made public. Considerable excitement resulted, and in this state of things the question came before both Houses of Parliament in February, 1872, in the shape of a motion of censure against the Government for making appointments which "were at variance with the spirit and intention of the statute, and of evil example in the exercise of judicial patronage." In both Houses the debates were most able. The defence of the Lord Chancellor, who on the occasion was virtually put upon his trial, was able, mauly, and characteristic; and though assailed with much bitterness, he indulged little in personal recrimination. Indeed, throughout the debate nearly every speaker who condemned the appointment bore testimony to the unimpeachable integrity of intention of the Chancellor. He contended that the qualification given by a seat on the Bench was real and not colourable—that status and not experience was the qualification required by the Act, out of which the element of experience had been actually removed in the Commons. "I will tell you," he said, "what I thought was the honest meaning of the Act as it came back to us. It rejected the securities which would have kept the appointment for old judges, and its effect was to tell our Indian and Colonial empire that their cases would be tried by judges of the same status as those who heard ours." The question was made a party one, but the vindication of the Chancellor was not without its effect, as an expected majority against the Government was turned into a majority of one in their favour. In the Commons the motion was also negatived.

At this distance of time we may (eliminating all party prejudices, and the undeniable fitness of Sir R. Collier) reduce the question to very narrow dimensions. That the appointment was a compliance with the words of the Act must be conceded, otherwise it would have been void. But on the one hand it was alleged that it was a violation of its spirit; and an analogy was sought to be established between it and a fraudulent or illusory exercise of a power which a Court of Equity would reach and set aside. On the other hand, this analogy was with much force of reasoning denied by Lord Romilly in the Lords, and by Sir Roundell Palmer in the Commons, who expresses his views with his usual clearness and precision. "That effect should be given to the object, spirit, and meaning of a statute is a rule of legal construction; but the object, spirit, and meaning must be collected from the words used in the statute. It must be such an intention as the Legislature has used fit words to express." Whatever opinion may be formed of the propriety of the appointment, in which four out of the seven Equity judges, and one Law judge, differed from that of the Chief Justices of the Queen's Bench and Common Pleas, there can be but one of the beneficial results of it to the country in the disposal of the vast arrears of appeals (especially from the Colonies) that had accumulated.

Growing infirmity of vision, terminating in eataract, reduced Lord Hatherley for a time to total blindness. In consequence, he resigned the Great Seal in October, 1872, and was succeeded by Sir Roundell Palmer, as Lord Selborne. Lord Hatherley has since been completely restored to the use of his sight, and has frequently taken part in the judicial proceedings of the House of Lords in appeals.

During the period that Lord Hatherley was a member of the House of Commons he took an active part not only in its debates, but served on a great number of committees.

While sitting as Vice-Chancellor, one of the most remarkable cases that he was called upon to deal with arose upon the will of the late Duchess of Manchester. Some weeks before her death, she had dictated her will, but did not sign it, and the evidence of her being then of testamentary capacity not being satisfactory to the Vice-Chancellor, he directed an issue, which was tried by Sir James Parke, then Baron of the Exchequer (afterwards Lord Wensleydale), one of the most eminent lawyers of his day. The Baron directed the jury, if they found the will to correspond with the dictated instructions (for such in truth they were), to find in its favour, notwithstanding much evidence was given to show her incapacity for following it, when read on the day of its signature. Upon a motion before the Vice-Chancellor for a new trial, he held that Baron Parke had misdirected the jury, and granted the application. That, in this conflict of opinion between two men of such eminence, the Vice-Chancellor's view was the sounder, may be inferred from the fact that the case was compromised. Indeed, we have reason to know that Lord Wensleydale himself upon reconsideration concurred with Lord Hatherley.

While Vice-Chancellor, a question of great delicacy was committed to him. After the accession of the Elector of Hanover to the Sovereignty of England, the king-if we are to believe a political letter of the time, declared peremptorily against three things: "ever to let Prince Frederick come over, to bring over the Hanoverian jewels, or to part with any of his numerous stud of horses in Hanover." The jewels, nevertheless, ultimately found their way to England, and after the severance of the crown of Hanover from that of England, upon the death of William IV., the Hanoverian jewels were claimed by the King of Hanover. The question had been referred to Sir Nicholas Tindall, Lord Langdale, and Lord Lyndhurst. After the death of the latter—the survivor of the three—in 1863, no award having been made, Lord Cranworth—then Lord Chancellor—intimated to Vice-Chancellor Wood Her Majesty's desire that the matter should be speedily terminated, and asked him if he would complete the inquiry and decide the question, both Her Majesty and the Hanoverian Minister, Count Kilmansegg, being willing to leave it to his sole arbitrament. The Vice-Chancellor, however, preferred a commission of three, and accordingly Lord Wensleydale and Sir Lawrence Peel were associated with him. The question to be decided was whether any, and which, of the Crown jewels had come into the possession of Her Majesty through George IV. and William IV. Commissioners laid it down that Her Majesty could not be held answerable for any of the jewels that might have been disposed of by her predecessors who were Sovereigns of Hanover as well as of Great Britain, but that the jewels must be traced to her own possession. In the progress of the investigation, some curious questions of law and fact arose. One diamond, worth about £30,000 was traced from the stomacher of the Electress Sophia of Hanover to the crown of This was the most valuable jewel of those restored. But there were others traced through the sensible forethought of Queen Adelaide, to whom William IV. had presented them. They had been taken from their settings and placed in a crown of Queen Adelaide's; but she had preserved the old settings, by fitting into which they were identified. The Commissioners had occasion to call for the will of George III., and it was found in the private custody of a solicitor, who was the executor of the surviving executor of the testator. We may observe that it is a singular anomaly that, to this day, the Sovereign's will is not placed in a public depository. The Commissioners were unanimous upon every question that arose.

Notwithstanding his engrossing avocations, professional and political, Lord Hatherley has

found time to devote to scholarship. In 1861 he published "A Vindication of the Marriage Law;" and in 1867, "The Continuity of Scripture as declared by the Testimony of our Lord and of the Evangelists and Apostles"—a work which has gone through four editions. It contains a condensed and forcible argument in support of the Divine authority of the Holy Scriptures and of the truth of the Christian interpretation of them, put forward with a modesty characteristic of the author. "Here is a man," observes one of his critics, "of conspicuous ability, and a singularly judicial habit of mind, who has devoted a good deal of time to religious studies, and who pronounces an unhesitating conviction that the old doctrines are unshaken." In January, 1830, Mr. Wood married Charlotte, only daughter of Edward Moor, Esq., of Great Bealings, Suffolk.

When a Sunday-school for the parishes of St. John and St. Margaret, Westminster, was opened in 1835, Mr. Wood took his place as a teacher for boys, as did his wife for girls; and so they continued for forty-two years, many of the children of his first pupils passing through their classes, and many of the pupils becoming themselves teachers. From forty male pupils, the number has reached to near 400. One of them became a member of the Legislature in Cape Town, another obtained a scholarship at Queen's College, Oxford, and took his degree there. On his and Lady Hatherley's retiring, the school-children purchased a gold pencil-case for Lord Hatherley, and a smelling-bottle for Lady Hatherley; and the present and former pupils assembled in considerable numbers at the school when the Archdeacon of Westminster, Canon Jennings, made the presentation in the name of the children, with a short address, to which Lord Hatherley replied. Comment on so touching a tribute would be idle.

And now, in the decline of life, Lord Hatherley may look back complacently and look forward hopefully. Few men have passed through the ordeal of public and professional duties with a higher character, or a less impeachable reputation. As a lawyer and a judge his "courtesy and kindness have won for him the affection of the English Bar; and the purity of his motives we have never heard impugned." His own estimate of the judicial character is the best exponent of his conduct and bearing: -"I have always," he said, on a memorable occasion, "thought that honour and dignity were best studied not by talking about them, but by practical courtesy of language, and by never allowing any outbreak of temper between any member of the Bar or the Bench. The dignity of the Bench is best maintained by hearing first all that persons have to say, by keeping yourself on your guard, and forming a covenant with yourself, as it were, to let every matter be fully placed before you ere you allow yourself to form an opinion, much less to pronounce a decision upon the subject. And certainly you ought not to disqualify yourself from the office of a judge by expressing strong opinions when only one side has been heard, or still less when nobody whatever has been heard. That is not my opinion of judicial dignity. I will only say that during the forty-four years I have been at the Bar, and the nineteen I have been on the Bench, I have studied to act on these principles. It is impossible for any man to say of himself that he has carried them out successfully; but at least I have never lost sight of them. At the Bar or on the Bench I never had an altercation with any human being."





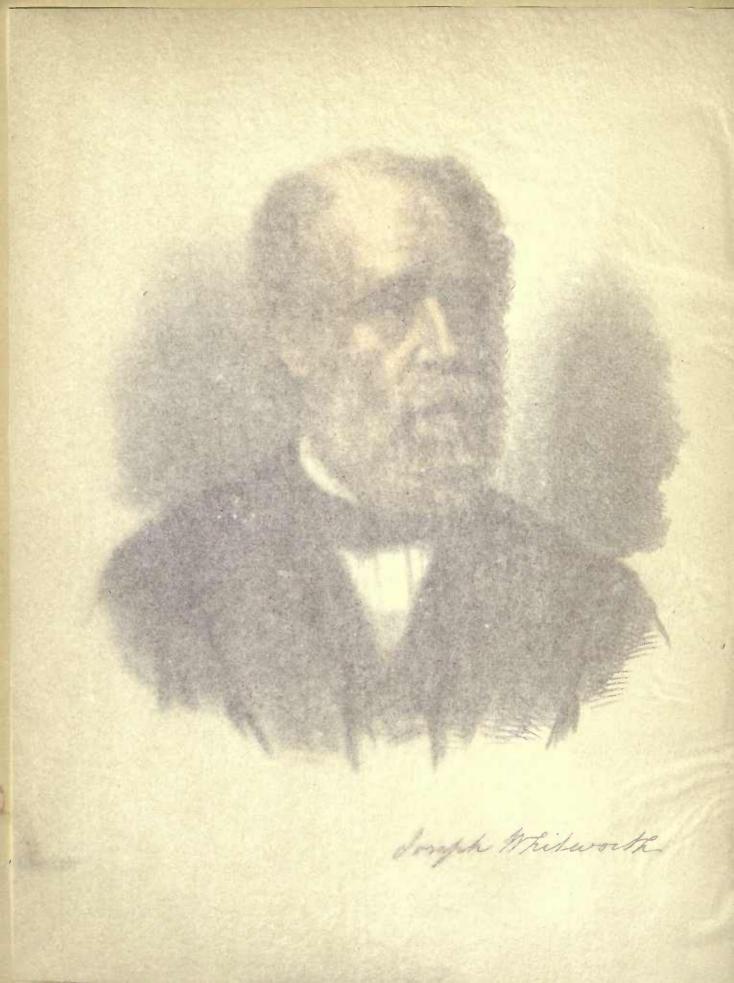
Joseph Whitworth

Cassell, Mer. & Galpen,

SIR JOSEPH WHITWORTH, BART

Thas been said by one of our greatest writers on philosophical subjects, that the introduction famous discoveries holds by far the first place among human actions; and this was most assuredly the judgment of former ages. For to the authors of inventions the ancients awarded divine honours, while to those who did good servine in the State (such as founders of cities and empires, logislators, saviours of their country from long-endured quarrels, quellers of tyrannies, and the first they decreed no higher moneurs than heroic. And certainly if a man rightly section the two, he will find that the judgment of antiquity was just. For the benefits of the whole race of man; civil benefits only to particular places; the latter last not beyond a few ages, the former through all time. Discoveries earry wasnings with them, and confer benefits, without causing harm or sorrow to any. The some writer enlarges on the three kinds, or grades, of ambition, by which the energies of investors are prompted to exert themselves. "The first," he remarks, "is of these who design to extend their own power in their own country, which kind is vulgar and degenerate. The second is of those who labour to extend the power of their country and its dominion among more. This certainly has more dignity, though not less covetousness. But if a man endeavour to establish and extend the power and dominion of the human race over the universe, his ambitton (if anabition it can be called) is without doubt both a more wholesome thing and a secre able then the other two." There are but few people who will not agree with these recovers, and who we not at the same time go further, and allow that in perfecting his manifest and allow that the subject of this memoir has been actuated by motives which entitle him to a grown a the third, and consequently the highest, of those grades to which reference has been made.

Born at Sometyeen, on the Tist of December, 1808, Joseph Whitewate adventional career at a school which was kept by his father, at which established the contract of the contract should be said reached the age of twelve years, when he was removed to die to the said to little, sour levels, where he continued his studies for a further year and a second state of fourteen years of age he was placed with an uncle in Derbysham and the contract of the contrac and continued under the same care for about four years, during the same care for about four years, his self with the working of the various machines connected with the working of the various ning. In 1821 he proceeded to Manchester, where, at the works of the same of t and offices, be acquired a practical transladge of the manufacture of the manufacture. Manchester for London about four years laker, he went was the state of the eminent engineers, and subsequently will be the place to be a second to the second who about this time was engaged in the transfer the ball to be a second to the second Returning to Manchester in 1833, was allowed a supposed by the same and the same an as a manufacturer of engineers' took the beauty and the second of the se



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IT has been said by one of our greatest writers on philosophical subjects, that the introduction of famous discoveries holds by for the first plant. of famous discoveries holds by far the first place among human actions; and this was most assuredly the judgment of former ages. For to the authors of inventions the ancients awarded divine honours, while to those who did good service in the State (such as founders of cities and empires, legislators, saviours of their country from long-endured quarrels, quellers of tyrannies, and the like) they decreed no higher honours than heroic. And certainly if a man rightly compare the two, he will find that the judgment of antiquity was just. For the benefits of discoveries may extend to the whole race of man; civil benefits only to particular places; the latter last not beyond a few ages, the former through all time. Discoveries carry blessings with them, and confer benefits, without causing harm or sorrow to any. The same writer enlarges on the three kinds, or grades, of ambition, by which the energies of inventors are prompted to exert themselves. "The first," he remarks, "is of those who desire to extend their own power in their own country, which kind is vulgar and degenerate. The second is of those who labour to extend the power of their country and its dominion among men. This certainly has more dignity, though not less covetousuess. But if a man endeavour to establish and extend the power and dominion of the human race over the universe, his ambition (if ambition it can be called) is without doubt both a more wholesome thing and a more noble than the other two." There are but few people who will not agree with these remarks, and who will not at the same time go further, and allow that in perfecting his manifold inventions the subject of this memoir has been actuated by motives which entitle him to a place in the third, and eonsequently the highest, of those grades to which reference has been made.

Born at Stockport, on the 21st of December, 1803, Joseph Whitworth commenced his educational eareer at a school which was kept by his father, at which establishment he remained until he had reached the age of twelve years, when he was removed to Mr. Vint's academy at Idle, near Leeds, where he continued his studies for a further year and a half. When only fourteen years of age he was placed with an uncle in Derbyshire, who was a cotton-spinner, and continued under the same eare for about four years, during which period he acquainted himself with the working of the various machines connected with the business of cotton-spinning. In 1821 he proceeded to Manchester, where, at the works of Messrs. Crighton and Co., and others, he acquired a practical knowledge of the manufacture of cotton-machinery. Leaving Manchester for London about four years later, he spent some time with Messrs. Maudslay, the eminent engineers, and subsequently with Holtzapfel. He also worked with Mr. Clement, who about this time was engaged in constructing Mr. Babbage's calculating machine. Returning to Manchester in 1833, Mr. Whitworth commenced business on his own account as a manufacturer of engineers' tools, thus founding the firm of Joseph Whitworth and Co.,

a firm which is now known all over the civilised world. At the outset of his independent career, Mr. Whitworth devoted his energies to the attainment of greater accuracy in mechanical work, and his labours were attended with the most satisfactory results. In 1840 he read a paper "On the Preparation of Plane Metallie Surfaces" at the meeting of the British Association at Glasgow, the object of the paper being to show how a true surface, or perfectly straight line, may be produced. "At that time," writes Mr. Whitworth, in the preface to his "Papers on Mechanical Subjects," "it was the custom to prepare what were intended to be used as original surfaces (presumed to be true) by grinding them; and I was anxious to direct the attention of those engaged in mechanical pursuits to the inherent defects of the grinding process, and to prove the necessity of adopting the system of correction, by which alone error is eliminated, and surfaces practically true can be produced." The system described and advocated in this paper was afterwards universally adopted, an entirely new era being inaugurated in the history of mechanical science, and a degree of accuracy rendered possible which had hitherto been considered unattainable. The desirability of establishing a uniform system of screw-threads also engaged the attention of Mr. Whitworth at this period; aud when it is understood that at the time referred to almost every engineer had a separate form of thread and pitch; that the nuts made by one firm would not fit the screws made by another, it will be admitted that the subject was one in every way worthy of the time and thought which Mr. Whitworth bestowed upon it. In the following year, 1841, a paper on this important matter was read at the Institution of Civil Engineers, with the result that since that time the system has been generally adopted in this country. It is but just to add that it was only after a considerable amount of research and a large number of experiments, that Mr. Whitworth contrived to arrange a uniform system of pitches, and determined the best form and angle for the thread. He had, however, his reward in the knowledge that his name is inseparably connected with this improvement. In the meanwhile, Mr. Whitworth was continually employed in the devising of new mechanical tools, or in bringing to perfection those which were already in use. His labours were directed, in the first place, to the accuracy of workmanship, and then to the economy of labour. Between 1840 and 1850, Mr. Whitworth produced many valuable improvements and inventions, the most important of which were the duplex lathe, the reversing tool of the planing machine, and the standard gauges of size.

But it was at the great Exhibition of 1851, where he exhibited a collection of engineers' tools, remarkable for their excellent workmanship and admirable design, such as had never before been brought together, that the fruits of his labour first met with their proper share of recognition. He then exhibited the measuring machine* designed by him, in which the sense of touch was employed, instead of that of sight, and by which he was enabled to detect differences of only one-millionth of an inch in extent. It must be borne in mind that the object of this machine is not to make an original measurement of the total length of any bar, but to compare it in the most accurate manner possible with a nearly similar standard bar of which the exact length is known, and record, to the millionth part of an inch, any difference which may exist between them. To quote the inventor's own words, it "is a measuring machine for the testing and measuring of standards of size of one inch in length (it should be stated that the machine now being described is constructed to receive a bar only one inch long, whilst that shown at the Exhibition, and made upon a precisely similar principle, was capable of taking in a bar

^{*}A full description of this invention is given in a work on the subject written by Professors Goodeve and Shelley.

thirty-six inches in length), and of all sizes below that length. The inch standard bar has two small end surfaces one-quarter of an inch in diameter, which are made true planes, perpendicular to the axis of the ineh bar. The sides of this inch bar, and of the right-angled groove in which it rests in the machine, are all true planes, and so also are the ends of the two headstocks between which the bar lies. A very small surface plate, with slender arms, which I call 'the feeling-piece,' has on each side a true plane; this feeling-piece rests between the standard inch bar and the true plane, on the end of the right-hand headstock. The end plane is moved by means of a screw having twenty threads to the inch. To this is fixed a wormwheel having two hundred teeth, into which an endless serew works. The endless serew has on it a micrometer wheel with 250 divisions. The screw, worm-wheel, and the divisions on the micrometer, multiplied one into the other, show that the movement of one division drives the end true plane through the one-millionth of an inch. When little or no pressure is exerted upon the planes of the feeling-piece, it will, when raised between the end of the standard inch bar and the end plane, fall by its own gravity; but by turning the micrometer wheel the surfaces are brought so nearly into contact, that at last the movement of one division will cause the feeling-piece to be suspended, so that the movement of one-millionth of an inch is sufficient to support the feeling-piece or let it fall. Perhaps the best idea I can give of the one-millionth of an inch is to state that it might be represented by the ordinary thin French writing-paper divided into about 4,000 thicknesses." These machines are so extremely sensitive, that the one described is capable of detecting the expansion in a one-inch bar which is produced by merely touching it for an instant with the finger; and in the larger machine—provided the feeling-piece be so adjusted that the movement of one-millionth of an inch would cause it to be suspended-if, instead of the movement of the one-millionth of an inch, the standard bar be touched for one instant by the finger-nail, it will cause the bar to be suspended—the heat from the touch of the finger-nail being sufficient for that purpose. The standard of heat adopted for the national standard measures has been fixed at 62° Fahrenheit, which, in the opinion of the inventor of this machine, is too low for the purpose. He maintains that if it were increased to 70° or 80°, its uniformity would be much less liable to disturbance from the warmth of the operator's body. It only remains to add that this admirable invention obtained for Mr. Whitworth the award of the Council Medal of the Exhibition of 1851.

In 1853 Mr. Whitworth was appointed one of the Royal Commissioners to the New York Exhibition; and on his return to England in the following year he drew up a special report on American manufactures, which was presented to Parliament by command of Her Majesty. During his stay in the United States he visited the principal seats of those manufactures which came within his department; and in concluding his report he observes that the results which have been obtained in the United States by the application of machinery, wherever it has been practicable, to manufactures, are rendered still more remarkable by the fact that combinations to resist its introduction there are unheard of. The American workmen hail with satisfaction all mechanical improvements, the importance and value of which, as releasing them from the drudgery of unskilled labour, they are enabled by education to understand and appreciate. With the comparatively superabundant supply of hands in this country, and, therefore, a proportional difficulty in obtaining remunerative employment, the working elasses have less sympathy with the progress of invention. Their condition is a less favourable one than that of their American brethren for forming a just and unprejudiced estimate of the influence which the introduction of machinery is calculated to exercise on their state and prospects.

Mr. Whitworth gave it as his opinion that the different views taken by our operatives and those of the United States are determined by other and powerful eauses, besides those dependent on the supply of labour in the two countries. He observed that the principles which ought to regulate the relations of the employer and the employed seem to be thoroughly understood and appreciated in the United States; and that the intelligent and educated artisan is left free to earn all that he can by making the best use of his hands, without let or hindranee by his fellows. It is unnecessary to point out that the question of education has assumed a very different aspect in this country since Mr. Whitworth drew attention to it in 1854; and that, in a few years, there is small reason to doubt that English artisans will view the introduction of machinery with a satisfaction equal to that exhibited by their transatlantic confrères.

In 1854 Mr. Whitworth was requested by the Government to undertake the construction of machines for the better production of fire-arms, but he deelined to do this until he had satisfied himself by experiments what the proper construction of fire-arms themselves should be. With this view, the erection of a large shooting-gallery (in Mr. Whitworth's private grounds at Rusholme, near Manchester) was commenced in August, 1854, and finished in October of the same year. It was provided with a succession of screens, covered with light tissue-paper, by which the track of a bullet could be traced throughout its whole course. Before, however, its walls had become dried, a large portion of it was blown down during a violent storm, and it was not, therefore, finally completed until March in the following year. On commencing his experiments, Mr. Whitworth was convinced, after careful consideration, that the polygon form was the best for the interior of rifle-barrels and for the projectiles. This form, among other advantages, affords the greatest extent of rifling surface, and enables a mechanical fit to be easily obtained, and rotation is produced without depending upon the expansion of the projectile by the explosion. At the same time, the polygon form, though not dependent on the use of the expansive projectile, is well adapted thereto, in the event of that being considered desirable. When the late Lord Hardinge went to Manchester, accompanied by Colonel Hay, Commandant of the School of Musketry at Hythe, to witness some of Mr. Whitworth's experiments, rifle projectiles, 3 inches long, were fired with great success from a barrel of the ordinary bore, rifled with one turn in 15 inches. On seeing these results, his lordship was anxious that the principles of construction, which had proved so successful with the rifle musket, should be applied to pieces of ordnance, and at his request three brass 24-pound Howitzers were sent These guns Mr. Whitworth bored and rifled hexagonally, the bore down from Woolwich. being 4½ inches in diameter (measured diagonally), 4 inches across the flats, 52 inches long, and weighing 12 cwt. One of the pieces was tried, in Mr. Whitworth's grounds, at short ranges, both point-blank and at high elevations, with different lengths of projectiles, the results being in every way satisfactory. The first completed rifle made by Mr. Whitworth was fired at Hythe in April, 1857, in the presence of Lord Panmure, the then Secretary of State for War, and his staff. The "figure of merit" (or the average distance of each shot from the centre of the group) obtained at 500 yards range was 4½ inches. General Hay states that no "figure of merit" under 27 inches had previously been obtained with any rifle; and so complete had been Mr. Whitworth's investigations, and so accurate his calculations, that this "figure of merit" of 41 inches has never yet been surpassed with any rifle fired in the open air. The Times report of the trial said that it had terminated in establishing beyond all doubt the great and decided superiority of Mr. Whitworth's invention. "The Enfield rifle," continued the report, "which was considered so much better than any other, has been completely beaten.

In accuracy of fire, in penetration, and in range, its rival excels it to a degree which hardly leaves room for comparison." In the face of such results, the adoption of the rifle into the service was naturally looked for, and must have followed almost as a matter of course, unless some reason to the contrary had been assigned. Eighteen months passed away without anything being done, and then a Committee of Officers reported to the Government that "the bore of the Whitworth rifle was too small for use as a military arm." The Whitworth rifle was again brought prominently before the notice of the public and of the authorities at the first Wimbledon Meeting, on July 2nd, 1860, when Her Majesty the Queen opened the proeeedings by firing a Whitworth rifle from a mechanical rest. The target was fixed at a distance of 400 yards, and the adjustment was so accurate that the bullet struck within an inch and a quarter of the centre of the bull's-eye. Two years later, the Ordnance Select Committee published the results of further comparative trials of the Whitworth and Enfield rifles. At 300 yards range, the mean radial deviation of the Enfield was 12.69 inches; of the Whitworth, 3.86 inches. At 500 yards the mean deviations were respectively 19.80 and 7.29 inches; at 800 yards, 41.61 and 15.67; at 1,000 yards, 95.01 and 23.13; at 1,200 yards, 133.53 and 46.92. With regard to the matter of penetration by projectiles fired from heavy ordnance, Mr. Whitworth claimed, so long ago as 1858, that he had proved, by a large number of experiments, that the best form of projectile is one with a flat head, and that such a projectile will pursue a straight course, without deviation, through water, so as to strike a ship far below the waterline, and that it will also penetrate armour-plates which stand obliquely to its line of flight. Shot with rounded heads, when fired downwards into water, rise again by ricochet, and their course cannot be at all foreseen. This fact has been established by firing into a watertank, crossed by screens partially immersed and partially rising above the level of the water, at a target similarly arranged at the other end of the tank. In this year he rifled a 68-pounder east-iron gun-block on his plan, and with this gun he fired a 68-pound solid shot from the deck of the Stork gunboat, at a range of 450 yards, completely through a 4-inch armour-plate, fixed on the side of H.M.S. Alfred. It should be stated that this was the first instance in which iron armour-plates were completely penetrated. Another great advance in artillery was inaugurated by Mr. Whitworth in 1862, when he fired his patent flat-fronted steel shell through a target representing the side of the Warrior. The weight of the shell was 131 pounds, the bursting-charge of powder 3½ pounds, and it pierced a 4½-inch iron plate, backed up with 18 inches of teak—a performance which at that time was looked upon with wonder. Mr. Whitworth was also the first to demonstrate the possibility of exploding armour-shells without the use of any kind of fuse. Before dismissing the subject of artillery manufacture—a subject with which, it is scarcely necessary to remark, the name of Whitworth is inseparably connectedit will be well to quote an extract from The Anglo-Brazilian Times of April 22nd, 1874 That journal states that "The Committee on Artillery Studies, after nearly two years of consideration of the various systems of cannon, have pronounced definitely in favour of the Whitworth rifle cannon as that which, from its material, the processes of manufacture, and the system, most nearly approaches perfection. The Committee emphatically condemn the French system of cast-iron strengthened by wrought-iron bands as unscientific, and practically proved inefficient. The Krupp gun, of Krupp east-steel, strengthened with bands, they consider unreliable, notwithstanding its fine material, chiefly owing to the uncertainty and irregularity of effect which, they say, always attend the action of the hammer, however ponderous, on masses of iron. Finally, they consider the English Armstrong, Woolwich, and Whitworth

cannon much superior, in construction and strength, to the best yet produced on the Continent: the Woolwich an improvement on the Armstrong, and the Whitworth far ahead of either in the essential qualities of a good gun. This superiority of the Whitworth cannon the Committee ascribe to the quality of the homogeneous steel used, to the care in its selection, to the oil tempering which it receives, to the use of the hydraulic press instead of the hammer, and to the mode of constructing and connecting the cylinders and other parts of the gun. In relation to the quality of duration, the Committee mention that, while the Krupp cannon has an average life of 600 to 800 shots, the Whitworth cannon employed by the Brazilian forces during the Paraguayan war have averaged 3,500 to 4,000 shots each, without a single case of bursting or serious damage having occurred among them." It should further be mentioned that Mr. Whitworth has always contended that guns should be made of steel; and in the course of experiments he found that by subjecting the metal to extreme pressure when in a fluid state he could produce steel of absolute soundness. He rejects as unsuitable, in the manufacture of guns, the combination of a weak and a strong metal, such as iron and steel. In a book written by him-"Guns and Steel," published in 1873-he enters fully into this matter, and explains his plan for subjecting the fluid-casting to enormous hydraulic pressure, by which all the air is forced out; and in this way obtains a ductile steel that is perfectly solid and homogeneous, and that resists the action of explosive forces in a greater degree than any other form of metal. He maintains that it is possible to make guns of ductile steel possessing twice the strength of iron, and completely master of the gunpowder. The Whitworth breechloading gun, made of fluid-compressed steel, with its large powder-chamber, cannot, it is said, burst or break up into pieces. For penetrative and destructive power it is designed to fire shells of such length and capacity as no one would venture to use for a gun of mixed iron and steel; while its range will be, at high elevations, from forty-five to fifty per cent. greater than that of a muzzleloading service-gun of the same calibre.

In 1857 Mr. Whitworth was elected a Fellow of the Royal Society; the degree of LL.D. was conferred upon him by the Senate of Trinity College, Dublin; and he was, during the same year, honoured with the degree of D.C.L. by the University of Oxford. Mr. Whitworth exhibited a fine collection of engineers' tools and of rifled ordnance and projectiles at the Exposition Universelle at Paris, in 1867; and in consideration of the valuable services rendered by him to the cause of industry and science, one of the five "Grand Prix" allotted to England was conferred upon him. During the visit of the late Emperor of the French to the camp at Châlons, in September, 1868, His Imperial Majesty was so pleased with one of Mr. Whitworth's fieldguns which was then being tried there, that he conferred upon that gentleman the distinction of the Legion of Honour. The Albert Gold Medal has also been awarded to Mr. Whitworth by the Council of the Society of Arts, "for the invention and manufacture of instruments of measurement and uniform standards by which the production of machinery has been brought. to a degree of perfection hitherto unapproached, to the advancement of arts, manufactures, and commerce." This medal was instituted for the purpose of rewarding distinguished merit in promoting arts, manufactures, or commerce; and on the roll of its recipients are such names as those of Sir Rowland Hill, Professor Faraday, and Sir Charles Wheatstone.

Mr. Whitworth was created a baronet in October, 1869, and in the same year founded the Whitworth Scholarships, for the assistance and encouragement of young students of mechanical and engineering science. In the previous year—March 18th, 1868—Mr. Whitworth wrote to Mr. Disraeli, stating that it was his desire to promote the engineering and mechanical industry

of this country by founding thirty scholarships, of the annual value of £100 each, to be applied for the further instruction of young men, natives of the United Kingdom, selected by open competition for their intelligence and proficiency in the theory and practice of mechanics and its cognate sciences. He proposed that these scholarships should be tenable, on conditions to be defined by a deed of trust regulating the administration of the endowment fund, during his life, and that thereafter the management of that fund, subject to the conditions specified therein, should vest in the Lord President of the Council, or other minister of public instruction for the time being. Mr. Whitworth's munificent proposal was considered by the Lords of the Committee of Her Majesty's Most Honourable Privy Council on Education, and he received a letter from their lordships, in which they accepted his generous offer, and intimated the readiness of their lordships to receive further suggestions from Mr. Whitworth as to the manner in which he proposed to earry out his scheme; at the same time, their lordships desired to be informed by Mr. Whitworth whether the Department could render him any assistance in carrying out his liberal intentions. Mr. Whitworth's reply was to the effect that he wished the Lords of the Committee of Council on Education to undertake the examinations for these scholarships; that he would himself, with the aid of friends, be responsible for the examinations in the use of tools; and he submitted for their lordships' consideration whether honours in the nature of degrees might not be conferred by some competent authority on successful students each year: thus creating a faculty of industry analogous to the existing faculties of divinity, law, and medicine. He expressed his opinion that such honours would prove a great incentive to exertion, and would tend considerably to promote the object in view. He also expressed a hope that the Government would provide the necessary funds for endowing a sufficient number of professors of mechanics throughout the United Kingdom. The general arrangements agreed upon for the first competition in May, 1869, are too copious to be given in detail here; but the chief points were that the scholarships should be open to all of Her Majesty's subjects, whether of the United Kingdom, India, or the Colonies, who did not exceed twenty-six years (on the 4th of March, 1873, notice was given that after the examination of May, 1873, this limit would be fixed at twenty-two), and be held either for two or three years, as experience might prove to be advisable; that the candidates must be of sound bodily constitution; that examinations would be held in the following theoretical subjects:— Mathematics (elementary and higher); mechanics (theoretical and applied); practical plane and descriptive geometry, and mechanical and freehand drawing; physics and chemistry, including metallurgy. And also in the following handicrafts: -Smiths' work, turning, filing and fitting, and pattern-making and moulding. No candidate would obtain a scholarship who did not show a satisfactory knowledge of all the following theoretical subjects:—Elementary mathematics, elementary mechanics, practical plane and descriptive geometry, and freehand drawing, together with the power to use one or more of the following classes of tools:—The axe, the saw and plane, the hammer and chisel, the file, or the forge. The object of Mr. Whitworth in devising the foregoing scheme was, while requiring a practical acquaintance with a few simple tools as a sine qual non, to render the competition accessible on fairly equal terms to the student who combined some practice with his theory, and to the artisan who combined some theoretical knowledge with perfection of workmanship. As the scholarship scheme could only come into full operation by degrees, Mr. Whitworth proposed, from the fund ultimately available for the scheme, at once to create sixty exhibitions, of the value of £25 each, tenable until April, 1869, and to place them at the absolute disposal of the governing bodies of various educational institutions and towns, in order that they might award them to youths under twenty-five years of age, who might thus be

aided to qualify themselves for the competition for the scholarships of £100 in May, 1869. This proposition met with the entire approval of the Committee of the Education Department, and was subsequently carried out. Some of the conditions in connection with the holding of the scholarships were altered in July, 1873. The princely nature of Mr. Whitworth's gift will be at once apparent when it is borne in mind that a sum amounting to nearly £100,000 must be invested in order to produce the funds necessary for maintaining the scholarships of £3,000 per annum; whilst the benefit thus conferred on the cause of mechanical science is simply incalculable. Not only for a generation, but for ever, are these scholarships intended to exist; and the name of Sir Joseph Whitworth will be held in veneration by grateful students long after the memory of many other equally eminent contemporaries has died away. No donation at all approaching in magnitude to that of Sir Joseph Whitworth's has ever been made for the furtherance of education in any shape; and it must be a source of profound satisfaction to Sir Joseph to know that he has contrived to raise himself to a position from which he can dispense, with a lavish hand, the means of enabling those who come after him to mount the ladder of fame, of which he, through sheer perseverance and intelligence, has succeeded in gaining the highest rung.

Sir Joseph Whitworth has on many occasions read papers before the various Scientific Societies, and his utterances have ever received the attention due to the words of one who is an acknowledged master of his subject. As a mechanician he stands alone, and for years past has been the standard authority on matters directly or indirectly connected with mechanics. He has devised and carried out inventions and improvements of a nature which has fairly astonished the world; and he has erowned a long and successful career by an act of munificence which will bring him the blessings of posterity. Nothing more need be said of Sir Joseph Whitworth, for even the outline of his career given here will suffice to bring the ready acknowledgment that he is entitled to rank in that third grade to which reference was made in the early portion of this sketch.

Sir Joseph married, first, in 1825, Fanny—who died in 1870—youngest daughter of Richard Ankers, Esq.; and secondly, in 1871, Mary Louisa, widow of Alfred Orrell, Esq., of the Grove, Cheadle, and the Cottage, Grasmere.



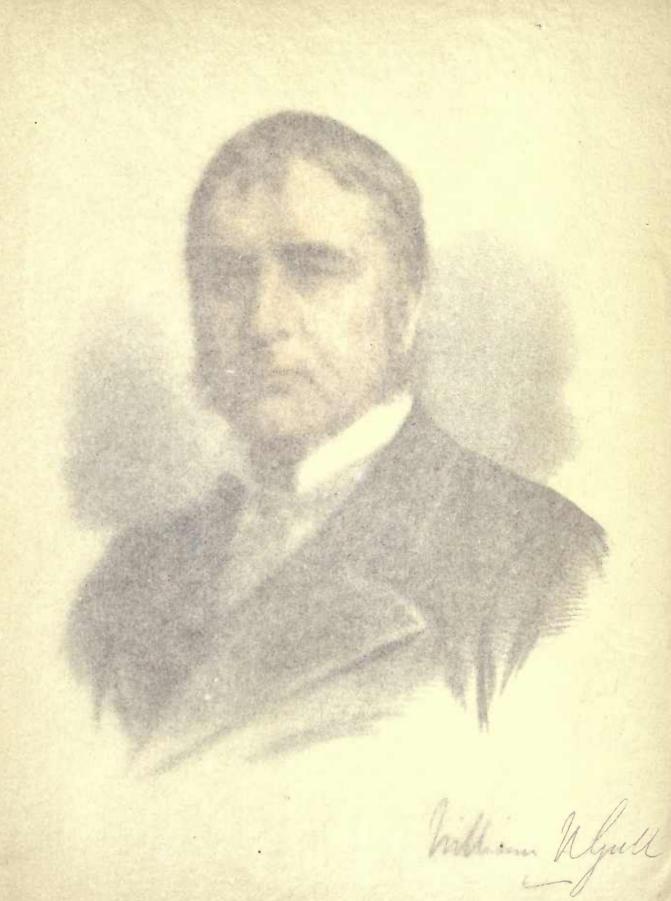


William Myull

sell. Frites & Galfa.

SIR WILLIAM WITHEY GULL, BART

IN a work like the Narrouse Second of the same and accessarily appear the records of the lives of men who was to secure good at a ways, "Some are born great, some which gradens and was the common three three there." If amongst the first class to example the carry was released to the extremences of tank and wealth, move primal facts to a system above their fellow-man, it is not difficult to determine their number, and a reconstrate to the pages of Debrett will supply all the information that is needed concerning them; but if under this category we include those rare and brilliant geniuses of whom it may be predicated that their greatness is a quality inherent in themselves -congenital, and not acquired—then the number of such in a generation is extremely limited. The majority of the contemporaneous celebrities whose portraits illustrate and whose action give interest to our pages, belong to Shakespeare's second class-namely, those who "sales a grainess;" though, very frequently, the causes and incidents which tend to swell the people of the first and third classes exercise no inconsiderable influence in adding to the master was at the accord. The fact of having been born wealthy or noble, with a silver spoon in the mouth, or of having had a golden one thrust into it subsequently, is in itself an unequivocal advantage in the race of life, and may serve as a determinating agency in a career. In the third category are to be classed those whom some fortunate occurrence has placed in a position for the exercise and development of hidden takent, or whom some fortuitous coup has unexpectedly rendered weater of the situation. In mone destances they advancement shows the formight and not the brindings of fortune, whilst in others the cast this same of the great men is palpoid to all helicities, and over during to himself. But general uses of the familie acceptance of greaterns as see one and a Cincinnatus to a highly unusual phononium in our self-asserting age. They were to have relieve the instinct of ambition, and nothing may be more remote from the case went a good of cheer lives them to active position and renews; but still, the number of those wises source over to us, who have self-med or would refuse the rewards and dignities which unights accompaniedly be placed within these would not take long to reckon. The aphorism that descripting comes to him who seems is unfortunately, not universally true; to some the opportunity seems never to come at all, and for others its hour dawns too late. The subject of the present sketch may certainly be said to have achieved greatness, and to have been more indebted to the third than to the first cause as an auxiliary in his advantorment. The monit of greatness had been attained by a long course of severe yet enthusiastic study-by a professional amining brought to perfection by patient research and corotal comparison; and the golden opportunity was offered and grasped by a Prince's illness and recovery.



SIR WILLIAM WITHEY GULL, BART

IN a work like the NATIONAL PORTRAIT GALLERY, there must necessarily appear the records of I the lives of men who may be accounted great in a variety of ways. great, some achieve greatness, and some have greatness thrust upon them." If amongst the first class we comprise those only who, owing to the advantages of rank and wealth, move prima facie in a sphere above their fellow-men, it is not difficult to determine their number, and a reference to the pages of Debrett will supply all the information that is needed concerning them; but if under this category we include those rare and brilliant geniuses of whom it may be predicated that their greatness is a quality inherent in themselves—congenital, and not acquired—then the number of such in a generation is extremely limited. The majority of the contemporaneous celebrities whose portraits illustrate and whose actions give interest to our pages, belong to Shakespeare's second class—namely, those who "achieve greatness;" though, very frequently, the causes and incidents which tend to swell the ranks of the first and third classes exercise no inconsiderable influence in adding to the muster-roll of the second. The fact of having been born wealthy or noble, with a silver spoon in the mouth, or of having had a golden one thrust into it subsequently, is in itself an unequivocal advantage in the race of life, and may serve as a determinating agency in a career. In the third category are to be classed those whom some fortunate occurrence has placed in a position for the exercise and development of hidden talent, or whom some fortuitous coup has unexpectedly rendered master of the situation. In some instances this advancement shows the foresight and not the blindness of fortune, whilst in others the real littleness of the great man is palpable to all beholders, and even dimly to him-But genuine eases of the forcible acceptance of greatness are very rare, and a Cincinnatus is a highly unusual phenomenon in our self-asserting age. Men may be born without the instinct of ambition, and nething may be more remote from the aim and object of their lives than to attain position and renown; but still, the number of those whose names occur to us, who have refused or would refuse the rewards and dignities which might unexpectedly be placed within their grasp, would not take long to reckon. The aphorism that everything comes to him who waits is, unfortunately, not universally true: to some the opportunity seems never to come at all, and for others its hour dawns too late. The subject of the present sketch may certainly be said to have achieved greatness, and to have been more indebted to the third than to the first cause as an auxiliary in his advancement. The merit of greatness had been attained by a long course of severe yet enthusiastic study—by a professional training brought to perfection by patient research and careful comparison; and the golden opportunity was offered and grasped by a Prince's illness and recovery.

William Withey Gull was born on the last day of the year 1816, at Colchester, in Essex, and is the youngest son of Mr. John Gull, who died in 1826. Leaving Colchester in his infancy, the future physician was brought up at Thorpe-le-Soken, about fourteen miles distant; and at the school of this secluded village, whither he was sent, the boy displayed a great fondness for learning, and took part when almost a child in teaching. Natural history was, even thus early, one of his favourite pursuits, and situated, as the village is, near a small estuary, he was able to indulge his tastes by obtaining specimens by dredging, and used to watch their habits by preserving them alive in sea-water. At the age of eighteen Mr. Gull went for two years to Lewes, and there assisted in a school kept by Mr. Benjamin Abbot. This gentleman was unusually well-informed both in natural science and in natural history, and was, moreover, a friend of a distinguished English botanist—Mr. Joseph Woods. With these companions the young student devoted himself to the botany of that part of Snssex, and especially to the cryptogamic section of the subject, in which pursuit he was greatly assisted by a famous writer on lichens of that time—the Rev. William Borrer, who liberally supplied him with specimens. In September, 1837, Mr. Gull proceeded to Guy's Hospital, under the friendly auspices of Mr. Benjamin Harrison, who was at the time treasurer of that institution. He there began at once to study medicine with the same zeal and perseverance with which he had hitherto applied himself to other pursuits; and the occupation of arranging the catalogue of the museum and the library of the hospital gave additional scope and encouragement to the natural bent of his mind. Mr. Gull's progress at Guy's was in every way satisfactory, and in 1841 he passed the examination for the degree of M.B. at the University of London, and graduated as M.D., with honours, in the year 1846. Two years subsequently, Dr. Gull was elected a Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, and for twenty years he acted as Physician and Lecturer to the hospital which had witnessed his start in professional life. During this protracted connection with the institution, Dr. Gull won the golden opinion of all with whom he came in contact, by the kindliness of his manner, by his untiring patience in individual cases of sickness and suffering, and by the readiness which he invariably displayed in placing the results of his studies at the disposal of all who might require them. Constant practice and daily diagnosis, meanwhile, led him to a breadth of views as regards the physiology of various forms of disease, as well as their prevention and It was during these years that Dr. Gull turned the activity of his acute and analytical mind to the acquirement and investigation of such sciences as are cognate with and, indeed, inseparable from the medical art, and sifted the results at which he arrived into clearlydetermined theories. During this period his time was, moreover, fully occupied with various duties and appointments connected with his profession. In 1859 he was nominated by the Crown a member of the Senate of London University, and it is noteworthy that he was the first medical graduate who was thus appointed. From 1847 to 1849, he was Fullerian Professor of Physiology at the Royal Institution of Great Britain. In 1854 was published the report on the epidemic visitations of cholera in the years 1848 and 1849, drawn up at the desire of the Cholera Committee of the Royal College of Physicians by Drs. Baly and Gull. In this publieation-which was issued thus tardily owing to delay in the arrival and condensation of the answers to the circular-letters and questions which had been addressed to the various members of the profession in different parts of the country-the distribution of the epidemic during the years in question is exhaustively treated of, as well as the presumptive local causes of the visitation; whilst the various theories regarding the introduction, the contagion, and the dissemination of the discase are clearly propounded. The work must for long remain a text-book in the study

of a mysterious malady, which has hitherto baffled research as to its cause, its prevention, and its definite mode of treatment.

On February 13th, 1861, Dr. Gull delivered the Hunterian Oration. In it he denies that disease in general requires a lowering treatment, and exposes the fallacy of many prevalent notions on that head. The old theory of starving a fever meets with but little favour at his hands, for he combats the idea that the phenomena observed in disease are a proof of excessive strength, and asserts that when the blood rises above its normal condition in temperature, it is a sign of weakness, and not of strength. The following passage is particularly explanatory of his views on this subject, which increased experience has not led him to alter:-"Life presents essentially two phases—one of nutrition, and one of function. Nutrition is a source of strength, function causes its expenditure. The phenomena of acute disease are all those of perverted or exaggerated function; they are all, therefore, due to waste without the control of that regulating influence, whether in the nervous system or not, which obtains in health. There is no increase, but, on the contrary, a decrease of normal nutrition in acute disease. We might as well, like children, regard the whirling movement of the hands of a watch whose balance-spring is broken as evidence of new strength in it, as believe that excessive heat, excessive activity of the heart, rapid breathing, delirium, and convulsions are proofs of strength. Comparatively, indeed, they may be so, and by such phenomena we may be able to estimate the previous condition of the patient, but in themselves, as far as his condition is then concerned, they are proofs of rapid disorganising changes. Yet how many victims have there been to the false assumption that they were signs of an excess of strength to be combated by weakening the body!" In the same discourse, however, Dr. Gull pointed out how many mistakes had arisen from the modern habit of ascribing almost every ailment or sickness to debility. He said that debility had become a sort of fetish, which was worshipped alike by patients and by a certain class of medical practitioners. He maintained that remedies are frequently blindly prescribed against a hypothetical debility, without any regard to the actual condition of the organs involved, and then, if the case should take an unfavourable turn, surprise is expressed that after such attention had been paid to the support of the system by means of nourishing food, all had not gone well. The fact is, that in many diseases—such, for instance, as diphtheria the causes of a fatal issue may lie in a different direction to debility, and that mercury may be as necessary for the treatment of the larynx as port wine is for the sustentation of the strength of the system. Dr. Gull's utterances on the subject of fever are interesting as showing the views that he then held about a disease the treatment of which was destined subsequently to prove one of the specialties which he once considered the universalist ought to ignore. Whilst asserting that the mischievous tendency to isolate diseases from the conditions of the individuals in whom they occur has been somewhat fostered in modern times by the attempt to apply statistics generally to practical medicine, he states:—"Though we may give the disease a substantive name, it is in reality an adjective disturbance, which can only be rightly understood when viewed in relation to the whole system. This is most obvious in the case of a fever. We may indeed say that a man has the fever, but in reality he is the fever. For the time being he presents us with a new though abnormal phase of life. It is this fever-life that we have to study, and not any substantive disease to be eradicated and cast out. And it is this fever-life in an individual, whose constitution may have been previously healthy or diseased, who may be young or old, who may be living in the town or country, in a temperate or tropical region. Can any one, with so many variable circumstances before him, speak of fever as if, to use a mathematical

expression, it were a constant quantity? And can we by medicating this or that particular organ, hope to cure a perversion that is universal?"

Towards the close of the year 1867, Dr. Gull retired from the position which he held at Guy's Hospital, though he subsequently renewed his connection with that institution, by accepting, in 1871, the post of Consulting Physician, which he still retains. On the occasion of the meeting of the Medical Association of Great Britain and Ireland, held in the Divinity School at Oxford, in August, 1868, Dr. Gull delivered an address, entitled "Clinical Observation in Relation to Medicine in Modern Times." The six papers which were read before this association, —which numbers more than 4,000 medical men amongst its members, between five and six hundred of whom were present on the occasion to which we refer—have been published in a collective form, under the editorship of Dr. Aeland. Dr. Gull's contribution is a very remarkable one, and will well repay perusal in its entirety. His explanations of his conception of the range and duties of clinical medicine are particularly noteworthy, and especially valuable to the student of bedside practice, whose object, he maintains, it should be to see the facts of human organisation in their most special relations, inasmuch as it is not even man in general, but the individual, upon whom attention should be concentrated. His utterances on therapeutics must necessarily interest those whose professions are other than that of the healing art, but who have a lively consciousness of all that tends to improve the sanitary condition of the human The determination with which Dr. Gull ever insists on the desirability of the prevention rather than on the cure of disease, is lucidly exemplified in the following passage:-" As health is our object, or as near an approach to it as circumstances admit, hygiene and therapeutics claim the last and highest place in our thoughts. Happily, at this day, hygiene has gained strength enough to maintain an independent position as a science. To know and counteract the causes of disease before they become effective is evidently the triumph of our art; but it will be long before mankind will be wise enough to accept the aid we could give them in this direction. Ignorance of the laws of health, and intemperance of all kinds, are too powerful for us. Still, we shall continue to wage an undying crusade; and truly we may congratulate ourselves that no erusade ever called forth more able and devoted warriors than are thus engaged. The diseases of the young are in large part preventable diseases. Epidemies carry off in great proportion the healthy members of a community; it is futile, if not worse, to speak, as some do, of leaving diseases to work out their own ends, as agents of a moral police. Medicine allows no such prerogative to our judgment. It is enough for us that diseases prevail, to stimulate our best efforts for their prevention, without our asking a question beyond. Where hygiene fails, properly commences the work of therapeutics, but it is painful to find ourselves occupied in making feeble and often useless efforts to combat the effects of a poison which might, perhaps, have been stamped out at its beginning. The strength of modern therapeutics lies in the clearer perception than formerly of the great truth that diseases are but perverted life-processes, and have for their natural history not only a beginning, but equally a period of culmination and decline."

Dr. Gull was elected a Fellow of the Royal Society in 1869, and amongst the other honourable posts which he holds, or has held, may be mentioned that of President of the Clinical Society, and of Fellow of the Royal Medico-Chirurgical Society; he is also an Honorary D.C.L. of Oxford. Besides the various professional works to which allusion has been made, he is the author of Gulstonian Lectures on Paralysis, of treatises on Hypochondriasis, and Abscess of the Brain, and he has also been a frequent contributor to the Reports of Guy's Hospital. His Harveian Oration was

delivered on June 24, 1870. This address attracted considerable notice, and called forth in reply Dr. Liouel Beale's "Mystery of Life," in which he attempted to refute Dr. Gull's theories. The closing portion of the address, which has reference to the subject of epidemics, will prove very interesting to the non-professional reader. The various bearings of the germ theory are discussed with perspicacity and candour. Dr. Gull maintained that the theories which were then being propounded as new were not previously unknown, and that many of the premises could not be established by facts. His concise statement of the advantages which had already been gained by preventive measures might advantageously be recommended to the notice of many metropolitan and local Boards. He says :- "By drainage of the soil alone, the mortality from pulmonary consumption has been in several places largely reduced. By drainage, as it affects the purity of water-supply, the presence of enteric fever has also been greatly limited. And whatever be the ultimate value of the germ theory of disease, had it done no more than promote the purity of the water-supply to large towns, its good results would have been incalculable. We already owe to this the Metropolitan Drainage Works, the Thames Embankment, the Royal Commission on the water-supply of large towns, the purification of the Thames, and such partial filtration of our drinking-water as the public waterworks companies cannot avoid."

We have now reached that period in Dr. Gull's career when his name came so prominently before the public as one of the chief medical advisers of the Prince of Wales during his dangerous illness in the closing months of 1871. The memory of those days of suspense must still be vivid in the minds of the great majority of our readers; and very deep-rooted in the national heart was the feeling of relief and gratitude when the heir-apparent left his sick-bed, blessed with returning health, and fortified by the expression of a sincere and loudly-expressed loyalty. It was on the 20th of November that the fever declared itself, and on the following day Dr. Gull was summoned from London; reaching Sandringham on the 22nd. On the 23rd, Sir William Jenner arrived; and in writing the biography of Sir William Gull, it would be a mark of one-sidedness and neglect if full and ample credit were not awarded to the skill and unwearied zeal of his brother practitioner. Somehow, because a special honour was conferred on Dr. Gull which the other celebrated physician had acquired before, and from the fact that Dr. Gull's professional attendance at Sandringham continued till an advanced date, when even the services of Sir James Paget for the local inflammatory symptoms had been considered no longer necessary, the subject of the present memoir has come to be regarded as the instrument under Providence of the Prince of Wales's recovery. So much was this the universal opinion, that a weekly paper of high standing said of Dr. Gull that he was made a baronet, and Physician Extraordinary to the Queen, "after his famous achievement of snatching the Prince of Wales from death." It is true that all that a medical man could do was done by Dr. Gull, but the services rendered by others should not be regarded as altogether extraneous to the issue. The part which was taken in the struggle with death by those whose bulletins were so eagerly scanned can scarcely be too highly rated. "The hope of the empire was in their hands, as far as human knowledge and resources could place it within the scope of their art. The accessories of a scene in which they were playing parts so grave were of a kind to test every nerve. If the nation rejoices and is thankful, it ought not to forget what it owes to the skill and science, to the devotion and self-sacrifice, in every sense entire and complete, of the physicians. Sir W. Jenner would be the first to extol the exertions of the colleague who has earned from all at Sandringhamwhat he values probably only second to the approbation of his conscience—the deepest gratitude." The Times correspondent at Sandringham wrote of Dr. Gull as follows:--" In Dr. Gull were

combined energy that never tired, watchfulness that never flagged—nursing so tender, ministry so minute, that in his functions he seemed to combine the duties of physician, dresser, dispenser, valet, nurse—now arguing with the sick man in his delirium so softly and pleasantly that the parched lips opened to take the scanty nourishment on which depended the reserves of strength when all else failed, now lifting the wasted body from bed to bed, now washing the worn frame with vinegar, with ever-ready eye and ear and finger to mark any change and phase, to watch face and heart and pulse, and passing at times twelve or fourteen hours at that bedside."

As our readers probably know, the 14th of December, which was the tenth anniversary of the death of the Prince Consort, was the turning-point in the Prince's illness, and from that date hope began to revive. It was not, however, till the 8th of January, 1872, that Dr. Gull left Sandringham. On the 20th of that month he was created a baronet, the important services which he rendered to the Prince of Wales personally being marked by an augmentation of his arms, in the shape of an ostrich-plume, enfiled by the coronet of His Royal Highness. In the following month Sir William Gull was appointed one of Her Majesty's Physicians Extraordinary.

Very shortly after his elevation in rank—namely, on January 26th, 1872—Sir William Gull delivered an address before the Clinical Society, which unfriendly critics considered as being already tinetured with that somewhat off-hand spirit which has, rightly or wrongly, been occasionally attributed to the baronet, but which was very seldom laid to the charge of the untitled physician. The Lancet, notably, felt called upon to comment as follows on Sir William Gull's communieation :- "The address was a kind of recreation to the members of that somewhat exacting body. They require of those who read communications to them a certain severity of accuracy and definiteness, a certain bondage to facts and reasonable inference from them. Sir William's address-genial and entertaining as it was-was distinguished mainly by an absence of all those characteristics. It was airy, vague, and speculative, and too nice a diagnosis of disease was rather discouraged; and so also was the notion that we are to expect to cure a great deal of the disease that comes to us to be treated." Many persons are born with faulty organisms, the equilibrium of which is easily disturbed. They are incapable of health, in the ordinary sense of the word, and all the tonics in the Pharmacopæia could not give them Sir William displayed a longing for the essence of disease, and a corresponding contempt for mere symptoms. Indulging in this mood, he escaped successfully from the clinical region into one of fancy, and perhaps not a few of the more clinical of his hearers lagged behind him as he thus soared. In cases of searlatina, &c., Sir William expressed his belief that the blood was not primarily at fault, and that if a man consisted only of blood, he could not have searlet fever. On that particular night, Sir William Gull eschewed definition and seemed to care only about essences. This was the motive cause of certain contemptuous remarks about the treatment that contemplated the relief of mere symptoms; and even the theory that takes the kindliest view of symptoms, and credits them with a positive curative intention, met with no mercy at the hands of the lecturer. The President enchained the surgical half of the Society, by promising them new regions of practice when more had been discovered about the dispensableness of certain parts of our organisation and their peculiar liability to disease, such as tonsils, which Sir William thinks he would omit altogether in the system of a man of his own making. Of course, it is a moot question whether a tonsilless man would provide more occupation for the medical and surgical practitioner than a person blessed or cursed with the normal appendage. The Lancet continues:-" Sir William clearly

designed recreation to himself, and the society over whose careful labours he ably presides. His duller hearers, whose imagination was not equal to the conception of a man consisting only of blood and without tonsils, doubtless expected him to talk of diseases, of the great success with which they have been differentiated, and of the valuable results which follow a treatment unavoidably directed against symptoms. They had hoped that so eminent a physician would have dropped a few words that might have sharpened their diagnostic faculties, and helped them in their therapeutical struggle with disease. All this would have been too like ordinary practice and the common habit of the society. As it was, Sir William threw physic to the dogs, and showed his audience how possible it is for a physician to think of disease as only another form of health." In this same address, Sir William Gull remarked, in reference to the case of Christiana Edmunds, that the study of insanity is part of the study of vital dynamics, which is familiar to physicians. He observed that it was sometimes said that an ignorant man was as good a judge of insanity as the most experienced physician, but physicians—at least, lifelong students of men—could not admit this. It is when the stress is laid on the weak organ—heart, or brain, or whatever organ it may be—that it often supplies for the first time evidence of its insufficiency or of its disease. On May 28th of the same year, a paper was read before the Royal Medical and Chirurgical Society by Sir William Gull and Dr. Sutton, on "The Pathology of the Morbid State commonly called Chronic Bright's Disease." This is here alluded to because in consequence of this treatise Sir William Gull was involved in a sharp controversy with Dr. George Johnson.

In the year 1871, when the French Imperial family, at the conclusion of the Franco-German War, took up their residence at Chiselhurst, Sir William Gull became one of the medical advisers of the Emperor Napoleon III., and he continued to attend His Majesty, from time to time, until his death in January, 1873. The illness to which the Emperor ultimately succumbed was, however, one which called for the services of the surgeon rather than the physician, and all the aid which the most consummate skill could give to save the illustrious patient was rendered by Sir Henry Thompson and the other surgeons who were in attendance. It is chiefly in connection with the fact that Sir William Gull's name did not appear in the memorandum which was drawn up, on consultation, after the post-mortem examination, by all the other surgeons and physicians— French and English—and that he subsequently recorded a separate opinion on one point of their report (though he entirely endorsed all the other statements contained in it), that this episode has to be mentioned. The course taken by Sir William seems to have been to a certain extent misunderstood, and it was undoubtedly such as to subject him to rather severe criticism on the part of the leading medical organ. The real cause, however, of the omission of Sir William's name from the general memorandum was that, as he was in entire ignorance that such a consultation as that referred to was to be held, he was not present during the deliberations, having in the ordinary course of things, and without any motive, left Chiselhurst immediately after the post-mortem examination was concluded. The discussion which took place after his departure was quite contrary to his experience of such matters; it being the universal practice in this country that the pathologist alone (in this case Dr. Burdon Sanderson) draws up the report of the post-mortem appearances, and the signatures that are afterwards appended being merely of those present, without attempting to give any weight or colour to the statements made by him. Some of the comments made by the press at the time, relative to Sir William Gull's line of action in this matter, convey the impression that he was indifferent to what was due to the august circumstances of the occasion, and sought to thrust forward some individual difference of opinion; it is only fair, therefore, that the above-mentioned facts should be stated.

Of late years, in addition to the multifarious duties which are inseparable from the daily routine of a physician in large practice, Sir William Gull has from time to time devoted some attention to questions of a more or less public nature. Among the latter it may be mentioned that from 1861 to 1876 he acted as medical examiner of candidates for appointments in the Civil Service of India, and when an outcry arose that among the successful competitors in the examination for that service there was a notable deficiency in physique, and that the bodily vigour suffered from an undue preponderance of the intellectual, Sir William was able to reassure the public on this head, and to declare that the young men whom the country was sending out to our Eastern Empire could hold their own as well in manly sports and athletic occupations as in the fields of learning.

Sir William Gull married, in the year 1844, Susan Anne, daughter of Colonel J. Dacre Lacy, and of this union a son and a daughter are the surviving issue.

[The Portrait prefixed to this Memoir is copied, by permission, from a Photograph by the London Stereoscopic Company.]





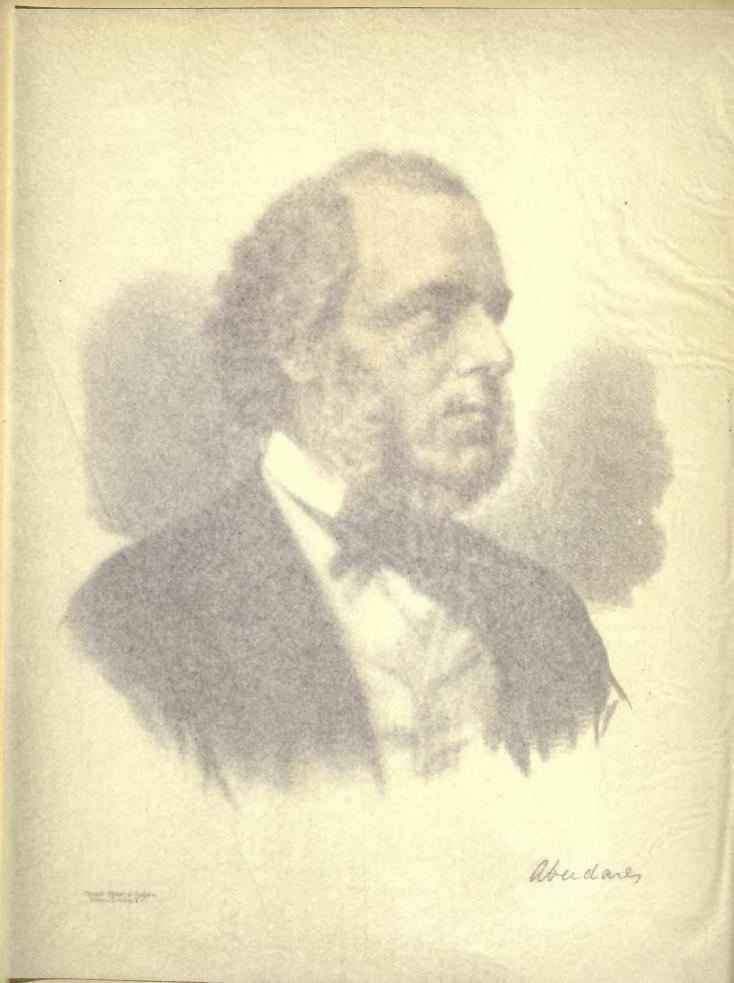
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THE RIGHT MAY LORD ABERDARE.

FINE Highs the second solving there seems seems about the late John Ross was a series of health as the series of addition to Bruce, which, in 1888, we have the same of the same and the same and the country of the late flor Magn W. Marka, where the control of the control of the late of the control of the cont Character converses, on the room of the collection of the collection of the collection with his the families, where he remained the 1885, deposition in fingland in that year, he comand the second sequentional studies at the Second Second, and continued at that establishment entil 1802, when he was namoved to see where he read for two years in the chambers of has ancle, the late Lord Justice & dear strate who was then a leaver of the Chancery Bar- and entered Lincoln's Inn for the secure of qualifying himself for the prefession of a barrister. Called to the Bar in \$500 - way then only tweaty-two wars of age-the practised at the Chancery Bar, and in addition a first joined the Oxford Circuit for two years, and attended the Usk Sessions. In 1844 25 some was advised by his physician to go abroad for the benefit of his health, and he accompany assented to Italy, in which country he remained for about a year. The result of this saturation of his professional career was the loss to the Bar of a very promising member, for on his return to England he relinquished the idea of secretary further forensic bonours, and retired to his father's house at Duffryn. But inserting was an foreign to the union of his Bruce that he could not be expected to allow to record at the decrees very long, and he accordingly at once accepted the post of Ministrative Proposition of Minister Tydvil when it was offered to him in 1867. He continued to making the first assessed with this position for about five years, when a vacancy occurring as the agreement of Merthyr Tydvil by the earth of Sir John Guest, he presented himself as a cardinate of the tabural interest, and was duly elected for that however, retaining uninterrigical proof of the seat for sixteen grant-a signal proof of the estimation in which his services was the bar constituents.

The state of the brane whilst in the House of Commons was one of usefulness and properties, he availed become a force of eastern and projective, he availed become of properties to a said and denounce systems which obtained for the selections of that a laid has altered weath accordy's while to interfere with them. More expensely did he bring his often as been an appearance affecting the well-being of the people, and extended his exertions to make a successful able with Temperance, Education, and Science and Art. It may with truth be said that there are few men now hiving who have exhibited as much interest in a successful as much actual good for, all classes—and especially the lower classes of the contentuity as the court of the present memoir. He has spared neither time of truths in the contentuity as



THE RIGHT HON. LORD ABERDARE.

THE Right Honourable Henry Austin Bruce, Baron Aberdare, the second son of the late John Bruce Pryce—who assumed in 1837 the name of Pryce in addition to Bruce, which, in 1805, he had taken in lieu of his patronymic Knight-by Sarah, second daughter of the late Rev. Hugh W. Austin, rector of St. Peter's, Barbadoes, was born at Duffryn, Aberdare, Glamorganshire, on the 16th of April, 1815. At the age of six years he was taken with his family to France, where he remained until 1827. Returning to England in that year, he commenced his regular educational studies at the Swansea Grammar School, and continued at that establishment until 1832, when he was removed to Loudon, where he read for two years in the chambers of his uncle, the late Lord Justice Knight Bruce-who was then a leader of the Chancery Bar—and entered Lincoln's Inn for the purpose of qualifying himself for the profession of a barrister. Called to the Bar in 1837—being then only twenty-two years of age—he practised at the Chancery Bar, and in addition to this joined the Oxford Circuit for two years, and attended the Usk Sessions. In 1844 Mr. Bruce was advised by his physician to go abroad for the benefit of his health, and he accordingly proceeded to Italy, in which country he remained for about a year. The result of this interruption of his professional career was the loss to the Bar of a very promising member, for on his return to England he relinquished the idea of securing further forensic honours, and retired to his father's house at Duffryn. But inactivity was so foreign to the nature of Mr. Bruce that he could not be expected to allow his energies to lie dormant very long, and he accordingly at once accepted the post of stipendiary magistrate for Merthyr Tydvil when it was offered to him in 1847. He continued to conduct the duties connected with this position for about five years, when a vacancy occurring in the representation of Merthyr Tydvil by the death of Sir John Guest, he presented himself as a candidate in the Liberal interest, and was duly elected for that borough, retaining uninterrupted possession of the seat for sixteen years—a signal proof of the estimation in which his services were held by his constituents.

The career of Mr. Bruce whilst in the House of Commons was one of usefulness and progression. Undismayed by the powerful obstacles arising from the force of custom and prejudice, he availed himself of every opportunity to attack and denounce systems which obtained for the sole reason that it had been hitherto worth nobody's while to interfere with them. More especially did he bring his efforts to bear on questions affecting the well-being of the people, and extended his exertions to matters connected alike with Temperance, Education, and Science and Art. It may with truth be said that there are few men now living who have exhibited so much interest in, and effected so much actual good for, all classes—and especially the lower class—of the community as the subject of the present memoir. He has spared neither time or trouble in any matter he

has undertaken, and if he has reaped a distinguished reward, it is no more than is fairly due to him as a proper recognition of most valuable services.

Owing to the effects of a severe illness from which he suffered in 1854, Mr. Bruce did not for several years take a very prominent part in the discussions in the House of Commons, but he was in constant attendance, and his utterances, few and far between as they were at this time, were amply sufficient to convince the leaders of his party that they had gained in the member for Merthyr Tydvil an adherent whose abilities would prove of eminent service to them at no very distant date. His speeches were for the most part brief, but brevity is an excellent attribute in cases where it can be employed with safety, and it could never be said of Mr. Bruce's observations that they did not reach au fond the subject he had in hand.

A Dutch proverb says, "Speech is silvern, silence is golden;" but there is no denying the fact, that precious as the latter is, it very much depreciates in value if kept too long, even if the spell be occasionally broken. Being very well aware of this, Mr. Bruce, on regaining his health, by degrees assumed the armour of debate, and when he ultimately entered the arena of discussion armed cap-à-pie with eloquence, statistics, and well-digested facts, he proved himself an opponent whom it was impossible to treat with indifference. True to his principles, when the Sale of Beer Bill—the object of which was to put the sale of beer that was consumed on the premises of the seller on the same footing as spirits when sold and consumed on the premises, by depriving the publican of the right to recover a debt under twenty shillings for beer consumed on the premises—was brought forward in 1862, it received his hearty support. We thus find Mr. Bruce, at a comparatively early stage in his career, joining issue with a cause in connection with which his name in later years became famous.

The attention of Lord Palmerston having been called to Mr. Bruce by a spirited speech which he made in 1862 on the question of fortifying our naval arsenals, he was offered, on the resignation of Mr. George Clive (afterwards M.P. for Hereford), in November, 1862, the post of Under-Secretary of State for the Home Department, which office he accepted and retained for nearly two years. In April, 1864, Mr. Robert Lowe resigned his position as Vice-President of the Privy Council Committee on Education, in consequence of an adverse motion of Lord Robert Cecil (now Marquis of Salisbury) being carried, when Mr. Bruce was installed as his successor. He held this office until the resignation of Lord John Russell's Ministry in 1866. He was also second Church States Commissioner in the years 1865-66.

The duties of an Under-Secretary are such as to bring the holder of that office very prominently before the notice of the House of Commons and of the public, and it is easy to trace the rapid advancement of Mr. Bruce in the political world from the time at which he entered upon his new appointment. He was necessarily called upon to address the House on frequent occasions, and, in the absence of his superior, to reply to questions of every conceivable description. All this was admirable training for a greater future, and subsequent events indicate that Mr. Bruce did not fail to appreciate and carefully cultivate the opportunities he then had for acquainting himself with the manifold ins and outs of an active political life. While Under-Secretary of the Home Office, he brought in a Bill on an important question, which, although not then adopted—though it was carried in a very imperfect form—was the basis of all the subsequent legislation with respect to the prevention of the spread of cattle diseases. After Mr. Bruce had exchanged the Home Office for the Education Department, he, at Sir George Grey's request, brought in and carried through the House a Factory Act of very wide operation, including the pottery trades, lucifer-match makers', and several other trades, and which first applied the

principle of factory legislation to manufactories in which the motive power was not confined to steam or water. In order to prepare this Bill he visited Stoke-upon-Trent, and studied the pottery trade on the spot.

It has already been stated that Mr. Bruce availed himself of every opportunity to forward the interests of the working classes, and an eloquent speech which he delivered in June, 1865, in support of the vote for the general management of the department of Science and Art, serves to illustrate the genuineness of his efforts in that direction. On this occasion he pointed out that the South Kensington Museum was in the evening very largely frequented by artisans, who went with their wives and families to the number of 293,000 annually, and that not only did they take the greatest interest in the general collection, but they were often to be seen making their way to that branch which illustrated their own trade, and explaining to their wives and children the merits of particular objects, the difference between ancient and modern work, and other points of interest to them. How much the collections at South Kensington were valued by the working men themselves was clearly shown at a meeting held a short time previously for the transfer of the "Brompton Boilers" to other parts where they might form nuclei for new museums. He (Mr. Bruce) was present, and the meeting was attended by clergymen, mechanics, and others, who testified to the growing interest which was manifested by the working classes in these exhibitions. Mr. Bruce argued that the workmen who lived at the East-end did not object to the collection at one place of rare and costly works of art, although they would naturally prefer to have them near to their own homes. He cited the fact that in the report of forty different sets of French workmen who visited South Kensington in 1862, they dwelt upon the immense advantage which it was to the working classes to have access to a collection of specimens of the produce of the arts and trades in which they were engaged. Unquestionably the views advanced by Mr. Bruce at this period have since received ample support from a legion of facts, for the working classes and their families have never failed, and in vastly increased numbers, to avail themselves of every opportunity of visiting and studying the multitudinous edifying objects to be found within the portals of the South Kensington Museum.

A very important measure—the Public Health Bill—was introduced into the House of Commons under the auspices of Mr. Bruce, in June, 1866, at a time when it began to be universally admitted that there was a strong need for an amendment of the already existing Nuisance Act; and it was adopted in its entirety by the Government of Lord Derby shortly afterwards. The principal object of the Bill was to enable the local authorities in rural districts, as well as in towns, to execute works necessary for the public health, and, in case of their neglect, to compel them to exercise the powers conferred by the Bill. Sweeping as were the provisions of Mr. Bruce's Bill, and tinetured with want of consideration as unthinking persons might imagine were several portions of his speech, it does not require a very large amount of discrimination to perceive that a stringent measure of this description had become absolutely necessary. Mr. Bruce was never a man to be satisfied with half measures—which in the end are infinitely worse than no measures at all-and it was, therefore, his desire with this Bill to sweep away, root and branch, an assemblage of evils which had been permitted to flourish without restraint from time immemorial. It is the fate of reformers to find themselves covered with reproaches, and to be compelled to stand calmly by whilst obloquy is heaped on them by persons who imagine that their rights and privileges are being interfered with. So was it with Mr. Bruce. In many of the liberal measures which he introduced from time to time, he encountered the most bitter

opposition, but thanks to his ready statesmanship, he generally contrived to come a victor out of the mêlée.

Earlier in the same year Mr. Bruce drew public attention to the subject of vaccination, by introducing a Vaccination Bill which was to consolidate several previous acts with amendments. In explaining the object of the Bill he had brought forward, he made some interesting observations respecting the course of legislation regarding it, and the effect on the public health at each stage of progress.

In 1867 Mr. Walpole brought forward the Factory Act Extension Bill, a measure to which Mr. Bruce gave his cordial adhesion. His own district being one in which labour was to be witnessed in all its phases, and in which he had had many opportunities of acquainting himself with the employments of men, women, and children, he was well able to appreciate any efforts to procure an amelioration of the conditions of factory labour generally, and especially as regards the employment of children of tender years. He heartily concurred in the provision prohibiting the employment of children under eight years of age in the trades to which the Bill referred. It would, he believed, put an end to many grievances, not only in the manufacturing, but also in the agricultural districts. He urged that to prevent a child of four or five years old from working was not only just to the child, but ultimately advantageous to those parents who eked out their own miserable wages by the premature labour of their infant children. "The limitation of labour," said Mr. Bruce, "had led to increased wages; and the improved health and intelligence of the working population were a direct advantage to the employer, more than counterbalancing the loss involved in the increase of wages." The Artisans' and Labourers' Dwellings Bill also seenred the support of Mr. Bruce in this session, and he very plainly pointed out, that although the Bill undoubtedly involved a slight invasion of the rights of property, it was an invasion sanctioned by common sense. "It was not," he remarked, "a Bill to enable local authorities to build cottages wherever they were wanted; but was simply a measure empowering them to pull down houses which were unfit for habitation, and then, after allowing due time, if the owner neglected to do what was necessary, to construct new habitations in the place of the old." He dwelt upon the urgent necessity for improving the dwellings of the labouring classes, and rejoiced that the most valuable principle contained in the Bill was that the rights of property were not to be exercised to the detriment of human health and human life.

The expression of Mr. Bruce's feelings on the subject of the education of the lower classes found vent in a measure which he introduced to the notice of the House in April, 1867. This was the Education of the Poor Bill. In moving the second reading of this Bill, on the 10th of June, he delivered a most powerful speech, which has since been published in pamphlet form. He said that he held, in common, he believed, with the great majority of the people of this country, that there was an urgent necessity for doing something to extend education, and he believed that a discussion of the best manner of effecting that object, although it might not lead to immediate legislation, would be useful for the purpose of bringing out the facts and eliciting opinion. To justify the introduction of the present measure, he was bound to show that the measures hitherto adopted had proved insufficient, and this proof must be based on an estimate of the number of children at school, and the number who ought to be there. Accepting the axiom of the Committee of Council that one-sixth of the population ought to be at elementary schools for the labouring classes, and bearing in mind that the average attendance was usually about one-fourth less than the number on the books, there ought (taking the population of England and Wales, to which alone the Bill applied, at 21,000,000) to be 3,500,000 at elementary

schools for the labouring classes, whilst the actual number attending schools assisted by the State was only 1,200,000. He dwelt on the systems of education which obtain in Germany and in some of the colonies, and concluded by saying that it was because he wished to see England rival Scotland in the education of her children, it was because he desired that the inferiority of England to any other nation in intelligence and culture should cease and disappear, that he proposed to invest the inhabitants of every district in the country with the power to educate their population. Strong as were the arguments of Mr. Bruce, and indisputable as were his facts, the Conservative Government evinced no intention of supporting his measure in any way, and as several prominent members of his own party also deprecated present action in the matter, he subsequently withdrew the Bill. But in raising the discussion Mr. Bruce's object had been gained—the thin edge of the wedge had been inserted, and he only waited for a favourable moment at some future time in which to apply a pressure sufficient to make a gap that would never close. The Education of the Poor Bill was the avant-courser of the Elementary Education Bill which was destined to effect a revolution in-or, more strictly speaking, to inauguratethe system of national education in England. This latter measure was brought forward by Mr. Bruce in the following year, and contained all the main principles and provisions of the Bill of 1867, with the addition of machinery for its compulsory enforcement where the existence of educational destitution had, after formal inquiry, been proved. It was, however, after a long debate, withdrawn, in consequence of the pressure of public business. Two years later—in 1870 the Bill was again introduced by Mr. Bruce (then Home Secretary) and Mr. W. E. Forster; and on the many occasions that Mr. Bruce was drawn into the discussion raised by this important question he displayed a consummate knowledge of the details connected with the undertaking. It is nunecessary to enter into the particulars of a measure so well known as that here referred to, and it is sufficient to look at the beneficial results of its working during the past few years to award it the first place in the list of modern reforms effected in this country.

At the General Election of 1868 Mr. Bruce was defeated at Merthyr Tydvil, and when his past services met with their reward in his appointment as Home Secretary, he was without a seat in Parliament. A vacancy occurring in January, 1869, in the representation of Renfrewshire, he offered himself as a candidate, and was duly elected for that county. He retained this seat while he remained in the House of Commons.

As a rule, when a man has elimbed up the political ladder to the high position of Home Secretary, he loses, to a certain degree, his individuality; that is to say, he finds himself mixed up with such an endless variety of matters, in many of which he may or may not be at heart interested, that his personal characteristics are apt to become lost in the sea of suggestions and never-ceasing questions with which he is surrounded. There are many members of Parliament—the lesser luminaries of the House, it is admitted—who appear to consider that a Home Secretary is an individual set up for the express purpose of attack, a sort of dummy figure, upon which they are at perfect liberty to discharge their flights of grievances, real or imaginary. The consequence is that the post is anything but a bed of roses, being, on the contrary, one of those offices "where peace and rest can never dwell." Mr. Bruce, however, proved himself to be an exception to the general rule, and whilst submitting patiently to the querulous questionings of his tormentors, contrived to preserve his individuality intact. As a proof of this, it is only necessary to glance at the principal measures brought in by him whilst he held office. His innate yearning for the improvement of the masses and for the establishment of order showed itself in the determined manner in which he advocated the Intoxicating Liquors (Licensing) Bill in 1872,

and in his unceasing efforts to procure suitable legislation for the government of the metropolis. It is true that it has been the fashion among a certain class to sneer at Mr. Bruce's reforms in licensing, and also to attempt to cast ridicule on some of the regulations imposed by him on the metropolis. But the carpers have long since seen the folly of their ways; and to the enactments which passed into law under his auspices as Home Secretary the friends of order and morality may easily trace the marked improvements which have obtained of late years in London. The other most important measures he carried while Home Secretary were:—(1) The Habitual Criminals Act (1869), enlarged in 1871, with a new title, the Prevention of Crimes Act, which, by universal acknowledgment, has had a great effect in reducing all the graver forms of crime perpetrated by professional malefactors; (2) The Mines Regulation Act; and (3) two Acts relating to Trades Unions (1871), one of them giving them for the first time a legal civil status, the other greatly mitigating the severity of the criminal law, so far as it affected them.

Not apparently sharing the opinion seemingly held by many of his colleagues, that frequent contributions to literature should be considered a sine qua non in a genuine statesman, Mr. Bruce has contented himself with producing one book, i.e., "The Life of General Sir William Napier, K.C.B.;" and even this volume, according to the modest preface, has only had the benefit of Mr. Bruce's services as editor, the real author of the work declining, for private reasons, to affix his name thereto.

Gifted with the power of being able to make a good speech at any time and place, and on most subjects, without much previous notice, Mr. Bruce has necessarily been called upon to address many other and less exalted assemblies than the House of Commons, and his well-known sympathies with the cause of Education have caused him to be especially sought after on occasions when that In 1866 he delivered a powerful address to the National subject has been under consideration. Association for the Promotion of Social Science, at Manchester, on the subject of national education. Adverting to the then state of education among the poorer classes, he went on to say that after thirty years of discussion and controversy in the press, in Parliament, in every diocese, in every town, almost in every parish, in England and Wales, it seemed a bold thing to say that the subject of national education had never thoroughly possessed itself of the public mindhad never occupied that place in the heart and conscience of the nation to which its vast and pressing importance entitled it. Books and pamphlets, sermons and lectures, in abundance had been published and delivered; there had been many debates in Parliament, and innumerable public meetings; many millions of money, public and private, had been freely given and spent, and great individual exertions and sacrifices had been made. The Church had founded its National and Diocesan Societies, and its elergy had, as a rule, displayed an energy and self-devotion above all praise; the Nonconformists had shown an ever-increasing activity; yet, after all said and done, it could not be denied that the subject had never been grappled with in that earnest and vigorous spirit which is the fruit of a strong conviction of a great evil to be removed and a great good to be won. "Education," said Mr. Bruce, "instead of being discussed on its own merits, has been made the battle-field of religious parties; and the adoption of a real and effective national system has been kept subordinate to the interests, or supposed interests, of Churchmen or Dissenters. We must, instead of having resource to petty and mischievous make-shifts, boldly face our difficulties, and by enlightening the public mind, and awakening the public conscience, enable Parliament to supply us with machinery which shall impose on all alike the duty of providing education for our whole population. I know the objections to such a proposition; I appreciate the difficulties of earrying it; I foresee the religious controversies to which it will give rise; I admit that we run the risk of losing some considerable advantages connected with the present system; but it is my deep conviction that the balance of good lies on the side I advocate." Comparing this address with the extensive measure brought forward by Mr. Bruce, in conjunction with Mr. W. E. Forster, some four years later, we have a good specimen of that consistency of principle which forms the most striking feature of his character. In the speech at Manchester the Elementary Education Bill of 1870 was most unmistakably shadowed forth.

In 1873 Mr. Bruce was raised to the peerage under the title of Lord Aberdare, in order to enable him to hold the office of President of the Council, which, with one exception, viz., Lord John Russell, had always been held by peers, and which Lord Ripon was then desirous of vacating. He held that distinguished office until the resignation of Mr. Gladstone's Ministry in 1874.

It too often happens that the atmosphere of the House of Lords has the effect of rendering silent men who in the House of Commons have ever been ready with their counsel. It may be that the majority of those who find themselves transferred from the one House to the other—not being entitled to the transfer by hereditary right—consider that their working days are then over—that they have fought the fight, won a coronet, and should henceforth leave the management of the ship of State to younger and more active pilots. Be this as it may, it is unquestionably true that there are at the present moment in the House of Lords comparatively young peers who, as Commoners, were shining lights among their party, but who are now simply the silent occupiers of luxurious seats. But the "rest and be thankful" theory is altogether foreign to the character of Lord Aberdare, and in the House of Lords he has exhibited as much anxiety to forward the interests of useful legislation as he was wont to display in the House of Commons.

The Factories (Health of Women, &c.) Bill received his lordship's cordial support in the Lords, and he impressed upon his hearers that there could be no doubt whatever that the Factory Acts had done very much in adding comfort and contentment to the working classes in the north of England. He maintained, however, that notwithstanding the fact that certain factory proprietors had provided buildings affording ample accommodation for their workpeople, the dwellings of the factory hands were in some places far from satisfactory. He particularly desired to call the attention of the public to one point of considerable importance. The Bill proposed—and, he thought, wisely to extend the period at which a child should not be allowed to work in a factory from eight until first nine, and afterwards ten, years of age, and to extend the half-time system to children up to the age of thirteen, unless the children presented a certificate that they possessed a certain amount of education. His lordship said he should propose to alter the Bill when it got into committee, by moving an amendment that, as far as England and Scotland were concerned, the attendance of children under the half-time system should be at a school to be approved by the Education authorities. His lordship further remarked that they were bound to observe the utmost caution in proceeding with a measure which in some degree would have the effect of restraining labour. His lordship offered valuable advice in connection with the Personation Bill, and the Bill relating to Friendly Societies. The Pollution of Rivers Bill (1875) received considerable attention from Lord Aberdare, and he addressed the House on many occasions during the debate. On the subject of Rating by Water Companies, he pointed out that the Water Companies increased their rates and charges according to the increased valuation—a fact with which the helpless consumers are only too well acquainted—although they supplied neither more nor better water. "All present," said his lordship, "knew that property in London was increasing in value, and no sooner

did the re-assessment show that to be the case than up went the water-rates." He concluded by insisting that some limit ought to be put upon the Companies. All thinking persons must see that these increased rates on a necessary article press with great severity on the poorer classes, and his lordship pursued a thoroughly benevolent policy when he protested against a proceeding not only hurtful but absolutely unjust in its results. In June, 1876, a motion was made for a Select Committee on Intemperance, and as the subject was one in which Lord Aberdare had for many years interested himself, he was in a position to furnish valuable information. He maintained that drunkenness had shown a marked decrease since the passing of the new Act, and asserted that of late years there had been a distinct improvement in the moral tone of the working men on the question of intemperance. His lordship said that some years ago drunkenness was hardly considered a vice by the working classes, but now it was scarcely mentioned without a feeling of shame. This statement was made on the authority of employers and others whom his lordship had consulted on the subject.

But to give even a cursory glance at the thousand and one measures with which the name of Lord Aberdare has during his long career been identified would have the effect of extending these pages to a length very far beyond that to which they may go, and the foregoing examples of his legislative labours must therefore suffice as general specimens. Consistent, energetic, and ever anxious for the improvement and advancement of his country, Lord Aberdare may, without flattery, be pointed to as a model statesman. He has kept himself aloof from intrigue, and has pursued that course of open and straightforward policy which rarely fails in due time to lead to the goal of success. His lordship has adhered to the motto, "Magna est veritas, et prævalebit," and in upholding its precepts has won the applause and esteem of all those whose desire it is to see the web of ignorance and stagnation swept away by the besom of knowledge and progress.

Lord Aberdare has been twice married: firstly, in 1846, to Annabella (who died in 1852), only daughter of Mr. Richard Beadon, of Clifton; and, secondly, in 1854, to Norah, youngest daughter of the late General Sir William Napier, K.C.B.





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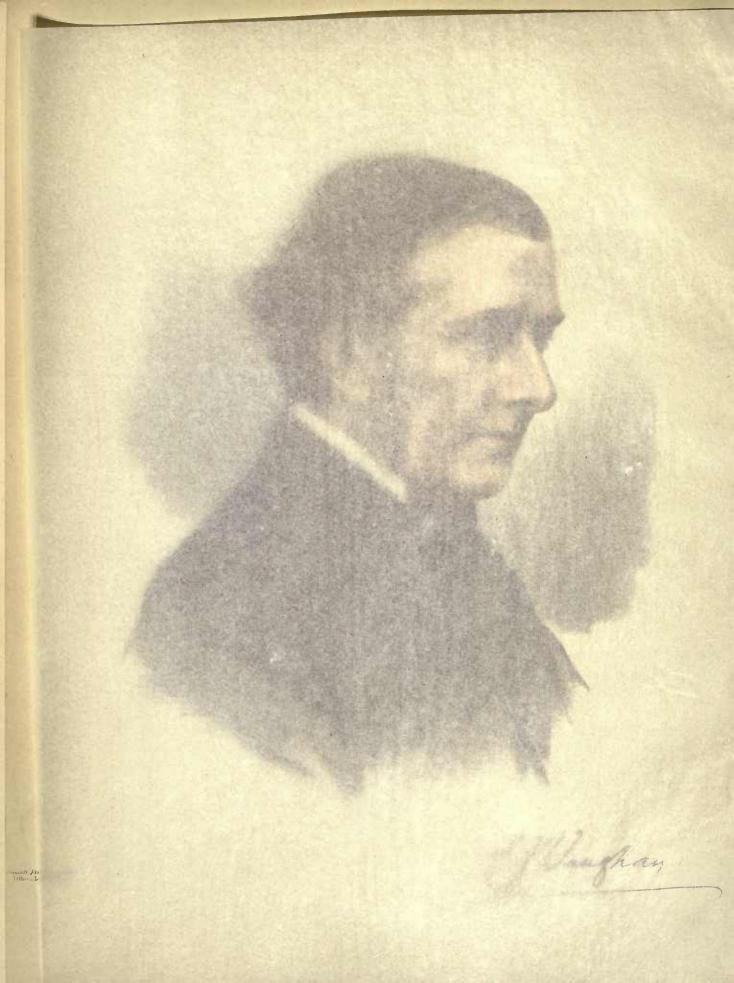
C.J. Vaughan

THE REV. C. J. VAUGHAN, D.D.

MONG the strange sights of London, there is none more characteristic than one of those A early morning studies of the Greek Testament, held by the Master of the Temple during Term-time. Eight o'clock a.m., and a raw winter morning, are not conditions which will attract any but a very carnest student of Hallenistic Greek, or a very determined sight-seer indeed; but Dr. Vaughau generally finds a fair gathering of students, not of sight-seers, when he assisse the Temple library at that presections hour. One by one the visitors drop their card as ther seems in and quickly russ to their seeds, Testament in hand. It is an institution with come fields, who would be titile think of missing it as the all-the-year-round bather would forego his assuate most dip to the Serpontine. The only parallel is a lecture at the Gresham Institution; but those leatures are in the evening, and shall it be ungallantly said? -ladies are admissible to them, so that there is sure to be an audience, albeit sometimes but a small one. Only gentlemen attend Dr. Vaughan's Greek Testament lectures, yet there is always a gathering, and not generally a small one. Perhaps this power of getting together apparently unlikely people at times which are beyond question inconvenient and uncongenial (before the world is what Charles Lamb called comfortably warm) affords the truest index to the influence exercised by Dr. Vanghan. It is not due to his artificial position alone, though that is a lofty one, and might, had he so chosen, have been leftier still. It points to some intrinsic power lying, so to say, deeper down; and it will be most interesting to trace, by the clue of his biography, how this cover has grown with his growth until it attained its present dimensions, and promises still to " grow from more to more."

Charles John Vaughan, to begin at the very beginning, and before any sort of prefix or series belongs to the name, is the son of the late Rev. E. T. Vaughan, Vicar of St. Martin's, Islander, at which place the subject of our biography was born, in the year 1816. Mr. Vaughan himself has left somewhat corners literary memorials of his ministerial career, and from the sermon preached by him, July 7th, 1814, on the occasion of the general thanksgiving, we can form some notion of his religious and political openious, and consequently of the atmosphere and sermondings amid which the son grew up. Alluding to the then lately concluded war, Mr. Vaughan said, "The war originated—and originated justly. I must maintain, so far as we were parties to it—as the French Revolution, which, after a few years of general peace, burst forth as a sort of publical volcano upon Europe. But whenes are this revolutionary form of things?

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motto, "Treu und fest." It is a pleasant picture, tempting one to linger unduly over it—that of the talented boy growing up amid the clerical seclusion of the prim midland town.

From the early training of home associations Charles John Vaughan passed to Rugby in the year 1830, and was one of Dr. Arnold's favourite pupils. It is not too much to say that in the exceptional position which Dr. Vaughau has occupied, and still occupies, at certain great centres of English thought, we have reproduced for us Dr. Arnold's powers of adaptation and of meeting the necessities of our most advanced thought and complex civilisation. In certain quarters where the very name of a "parson" was dreaded, that of Dr. Arnold was, and that of Dr. Vaughan is, warmly welcomed and fondly treasured. Let those who doubt it in the latter case journey to busy commercial Doncaster and mention the name of its former vicar. But we are anticipating the order of events. Charles John Vaughan's Rugby course was a distinguished one, not only in itself, but in its surroundings. Of the school at this time Dean Stanley said, in his Life of Dr. Arnold, that it was Arnold; but the university career which succeeded it was, in Vaughan's case, even more brilliant still. It was a succession Having matriculated at Trinity, he soon commenced his series of of academical triumphs. successes, by gaining the Craven University Scholarship in 1836. His predecessors in this distinction comprise some of the greatest names on the muster-roll of Cambridge, from the days of Richard Porson downwards; and in this and the next year our alumnus showed his worthiness to follow in the steps of this great Greek scholar by gaining the prize that bears his name. This was originally given for a translation into Greek iambics of some passage from Shakespeare, Ben Jonson, Massinger, or Beaumont and Fletcher, a comparatively recent statute only having enlarged the range so far as to include the works of any standard English poet. The passages translated on these occasions were, for the year 1836, the beautiful speech of John of Gaunt, in Richard II., act ii., scene 1, beginning-

> "Methinks, I am a prophet new inspired; And thus, expiring, do foretell of him," &c.;

while for 1837 it was the still more celebrated speech of King Lear, act iii., scene 2:—
"Blow, winds, and crack your cheeks!"

The dexterity with which these versions were managed shows the most complete mastery of Porson's peculiar craft—the making of the iambic senarius. In the year 1837, too, the name of C. J. Vaughan figures among the Browne's Medallists. The prize for the Greek Ode and Epigrams fell to this distinguished Trinity undergraduate. The stipulation in this case is that the Greek Ode shall be in imitation of Sappho, and the Epigrams after the manner of the "Anthologia." The Ode was a long one, in Sapphic metre, on the lines from the Satires of Horace (I. iv. 43)—

"Ingenium cui sit, cui mens divinior, atque os Magna sonaturum, des nominis hujus honorem."

The allusions to Milton, Dante, Byron, and Coleridge are singularly happy. Of the Epigrams, that in Greek was an Epitaph on Alcibiades. The Latin contains about the best jeu-de-mots we remember to have seen. One candidate says to another—

"Da mihi (ne vellar) diagramma problematis unum Quippe tibi adsideo proximus."

But the other refuses, adding his reason in the motto of the Epigram:—
"Sum tibi vicinus; proximus ipse mihi."

But 1837 was a veritable annus mirabilis; its records of success are not yet over. Mr. Vaughan gained, in addition to his previous honours, the Members' Prize for the Latin Essay. All this, of course, prefigured a high place in the classical tripos. Having been placed tenth among the Senior Optimes in the mathematical list, Vaughan of Trinity was bracketed first in classics with Lord Lyttelton of his own college; and the coveted honour of a Chancellor's Medal was added to the previous distinctions of this young academical hero. He became Fellow of Trinity in 1839, and took his M.A. degree in 1841.

And at the same time, too, a higher honour supervened upon those which even the most bountiful Alma Mater can bestow. Mr. Vaughan had taken Holy Orders; and in this year he became Vicar of St. Martin's, Leicester, the church under the shadow of which his boyheod had been passed. This position he retained for three years—1841-44. They were indeed crucial years in determining his future career, for we may venture to say that, notably as Dr. Vaughan has distinguished himself in other departments, such as the academical and scholastic, it is as the divine—the crudite theologian and experienced parish priest—we regard him, perhaps to the danger of unfairly leaving out of consideration his scholarly pursuits. The fact is that those high distinctions have been swallowed up in one which is so far higher than all.

With the year 1844, however, another phase of usefulness was assumed. At this time Mr. Vaughan was elected Head-Master of Harrow, and at once entered upon a sphere where he had the opportunity of earrying out those lessons he had learned at the feet of that scholastic Gamaliel, Dr. Arnold. He swayed the destinies of this great educational centre for fifteen years, from 1844 to 1859. Fifteen years may be said to represent a generation in the case of a Head-Master. We believe we are correct in assigning this estimate to Dr. Vaughan himself—we call him Dr. Vaughan now, for he took his D.D. in 1845. In half the number of years which roughly counts for a generation among ordinary men, the trying duties of a Head-Master may fairly be held to entitle him to the distinction of "Emeritus." Though his faculties, both physical and intellectual, were in their prime, Dr. Vaughan resigned in 1859, and we believe that the present holder of the office, Dr. Butler, was one of Dr. Vaughan's favourite pupils, and owes in no small degree to the discriminating support of his predecessor the mantle he so successfully wears. Dr. Vaughan himself had the satisfaction of raising the school from a comparatively low ebb to great prosperity; and to his influence is due, in a very marked measure, the prestige which Harrow at present enjoys among English public schools.

A letter addressed by Dr. Vaughan to Lord Palmerston, in 1853, serves to bring out the characteristic features impressed on the school by his Head-Mastership, and also contains many graceful endorsements of the assertion which has been made as to the store set upon the lessons in school-management and discipline learnt under Dr. Arnold at Rugby. The occasion of this letter was simply one of those flittings of a cloud across the firmament of scholastic life which will occur to every Head-Master whose régime is in the least degree marked by originality. It is, in point of fact, an elaborate apologia or justification of the monitorial system at Harrow. Quoting from Stanley's Life of Arnold, Dr. Vaughan says:—"In many points Dr. Arnold took the institution [the authority of the Sixth Form] as he found it, and as he remembered it at Winchester. The responsibility of checking bad practices without the intervention of the master, the occasional settlement of difficult cases of school-government, the triumph of order over brute force involved in the maintenance of such an authority, had been more or less produced under the old system, both at Rugby and elsewhere. But his zeal in its defence,

and his confident reliance upon it as the keystone of his whole government, were eminently characteristic of himself, and were brought out the more forcibly from the fact that it was a point on which the spirit of the age set strongly and increasingly against him, on which there was a general tendency to yield to the popular outcry, and on which the clamour that at one time assailed him was ready to fasten as on a subject where all parties could concur in their condemnation. But he was immovable."

So was Dr. Vaughan. It would land us unnecessarily on the very vexed questions of fagging and of the monitorial cane, and might tempt an utterly irrelevant expression of opinion, were we to do more than record facts and quote extracts from the subject of our memoir. Nothing could be more decided than the attitude assumed by Dr. Vaughan himself. He concludes his letter with these memorable and weighty words:-"The time may come when public opinion will imperatively require the introduction of an opposite principle, of which it shall be the object to confine and preclude the expression of evil by the unceasing espionage of an increased staff of subordinate masters. The experiment may be tried; I hope not at Harrow—certainly not by me. I see many difficulties, some evils, in the present system; some advantages, many plausibilities, in its opposite; and yet I believe the one to be practically ennobling and elevating—the other essentially narrowing, enfeebling, and enervating. I well foresee the results of the change, come when it may. I know how pleasing, yet how brief, will be the lull consequent upon the establishment of a rule of equality and fraternity; how warm, perhaps, for the moment, the congratulations of some who have trembled for their sons' safety under the present (so-called) reign of terror; on the other hand, how gradual, yet how sure, the growth of those meaner and more cowardly vices which a monitorial system has coerced where it could not eradicate; and how impossible the return to that principle of graduated ranks and organised internal subordination which, amidst some real and many imaginary defects, has been found by experience to be inferior to no other system in the formation of the character of an English Christian gentleman."

In 1851 Dr. Vaughan had been appointed Chaplain in Ordinary to the Queen; and in 1860, the year succeeding the resignation of his Head-Mastership, he was made Vicar of Doncaster. He had, for reasons of his own, into which it would be impertinent to enter, refused the Bishopric of Rochester; but this we may say—that the atmosphere of a parish, into which he now again passed, was one for which he was very specially fitted. Dr. Vaughan had made his mark in the pulpit, not only as Chaplain to the Queen, not solely as head of a parochial church, but in the quiet chapel at Harrow he had influenced who shall guess how many of those minds of leading men who should go out and influence others for good in their turn?—passing on, so to say, the sacred torch which they had received at his hands. Here, again, was a modus operandi in which we cannot doubt that Dr. Vaughan followed his own great exemplar (Dr. Arnold) in the scholastic office. His school sermons were no dry, pedagogic discourses, but real grapplings with school-boy difficulties, quietly finding their way into the very recesses of lads' hearts. It is difficult to know on which page to fix in that most striking and graphic volume, "Memorials of Harrow Sundays;" but here is an extract that bears very closely indeed upon the subject to which reference has just been made, while the whole sermon strikes one as being like the masterly discourse of Bishop Butler on "Resentment" made applicable to the experiences of a schoolboy. Speaking on the subject of "Sympathy and Indignation," Dr. Vaughan says-and it must not be forgotten where and to whom his words are uttered :- "Let it not be that you who are to set the tone and fix the standard, for so many in this coming generation, of honour and morality,

should have habituated yourselves in one of the public schools of England to sleep securely, or, still worse, to look on tamely while the weak and the innocent suffer day by day in body and soul from the strong and unscrupulous. As I am sure that those of you who are at the head of this community are guiltless of any such connivance at evil, and would do everything in your power to denounce and to exterminate it, so let me earnestly charge it upon every one who hears me, high or low in our ranks, to foster in himself, and, if he can, to enforce upon others, a sense of deep responsibility in this particular; a responsibility proportioned, indeed, to his age and strength, but commencing with the very lowest stage in each, and growing in him from day to day as he advances towards the higher."

Still more touchingly, in a sermon called "Last Words," does he address the boys who are leaving:—"We linger foully over a farewell which yet is painful; and so it is now. We cannot pretend to that official view of our position here which should enable us to speed the parting and to hail the comer with an equally balanced and impartial interest. We feel that our relation to each other has been a real, has been a delightful, has been, if we would read it aright, also a solemn one. We cannot see it coming to a close and not be sorry. But in many senses I hope it is not closing or to close ever. It need not. Here, while we are permitted here to labour, you will be secure always of a joyful welcome. Here, when change or death has passed over some of us, those who return from time to time to these scenes of their youth will remember us to the last as friends, and anticipate, if they and we be to the end faithful, a reunion, not in spirit only, but in presence, in a world where there is no more sorrow, no more parting, no more change, because no more sin." This return of old pupils, and the retention in manhood of the respect acquired during immaturity, has been, as we happen to know from many private sources, a marked characteristic of the relation between master and disciple in Dr. Vaughan's case.

From Harrow to Doncaster was indeed a change; but really great men soon become acclimatised, and that same happy versatility that made Dr. Vaughan the friend of the smallest boy at Harrow soon endeared him to the humblest of his great flock at Doncaster. We can note here only the written records of an association which was indelibly graven on many and many a heart during his ten years' ministry in this place. The following sentences are taken from the sermon on "Heaven," in the volume called "Last Words at Doncaster:"-"We will endeavour now-it is no unlawful endeavour-to see the Holy City, as it were, with the eyes of St. John; to look across the dark river which runs down there into the valley, up to those shining lights which crown the further shore, and so to look in after the blessed dead, who alone see and know, that we ourselves may both be refreshed in the thought of their glory, and also encouraged to walk the way and to run the race set before us here below." The very last words at Doncaster were these:-"We know the bitterness of human loving-in its painful partings and more painful doubtings. God help us all so to love as to love in Him; to be willing to forego present comfort, even in loving, for the sake of that everlasting love which must come if we be faithful! And O may He, of His own great love, give us entrance at the last day into that mighty, that august Home, where all shall be love, because in the presence of Him who is all love!" There is, it will be noticed, nothing of the dry, official character in Dr. Vaughan's utterances; and yet, while they are full of genuine emotion, the most fastidious critic could never apply to them that offensive term, "sensational." They rise to the real level of an earnest ministerial tone, but they never overstep that limit. no doubt, one great secret of their success. Will it be deemed fanciful if we attribute also

much of Dr. Vaughan's occult influence to the very form and size of the books he writes? They are not ponderous tomes. He is not a writer of folios. They are Enchiridia—handbooks in the truest sense of the word. And yet, while their form is octavo or duodecimo, they have all the exuberance of a folio. Each is a multum in parvo. All are popular in the truest sense of the word; and what a compendium of sound theology is embraced in them! No wonder that he lays hold of boys and young men. They cannot abide prolixity. Dry bones have no attraction for them. It would be faint praise to say there were no dry bones in Dr. Vaughan's multitudinous volumes. They are full of the freshest life—the full, free, exuberant life of an English public school or haunt of young students. His pen is indeed that of a ready writer. The mere arithmetical calculation of his works gives one some idea how ready that graceful pen is. The separate entries of Dr. Vaughan's books in the catalogue of the British Museum amount to over one hundred, and occupy more than twenty pages of folio.

In the year 1869, Dr. Vaughan was appointed to the most appropriate post of Master of the Temple. Here, as a preacher, he finds before him Sunday after Sunday a congregation which embraces some of the keenest intellects of the age; and while he has to satisfy the somewhat exacting requirements of these, it is still incumbent upon him to minister to the more average requirements of the large general eongregation which, every week, fills up each available inch of the interesting old London church in which he preaches. Dr. Vaughan is also Sunday Evening Lecturer at St. Andrew's, Holborn; so that he is still emphatically a busy man. When he ended his fifteen years at Harrow, or his nine years at Doncaster, it was not to retire into inglorious ease. On the contrary, he is still in harness, and to all appearance has many years of active work before him yet. He was one of the Select Preachers in his university while resident there, and every now and again returns à ses premiers amours.

The following passage is from the last of four sermons preached before the University of Cambridge during October and November, 1872. The course is ealled "The Young Life Equipping itself for God's Service;" the special discourse quoted is entitled "The Perpetual Presence," and based on the text, "Lo, I am with you alway, even unto the end of the world:"-"'I am with you,' Christ says, 'all the days;' and this is one of them. Brethren, if the promise endures for the Church, how is it with this, its famous school and training-place? Has any change here, effected from within or from without, robbel this university of a Divine Presence? I know that here also, as in the Church, there are symptoms which a hasty diagnosis might interpret unfavourably. We have not escaped here the infection of freethinking, of seeptical opinion, of 'oppositions of science falsely so called.' This university would not be national, if it were otherwise. A college is not a monastery—it is a little world. It is a specimen of English life, for good and evil. It could not, it would not, bar its doors against the entrance of any thought, or any inquiry. Therefore those unsettlements of human opinion, which are rife everywhere, have their representation and their reflection here. But their presence does not shut out Christ's; rather does it stir into livelier action the faith which is His, and which finds itself in urgent need of all its aids and of all its weapons, if so be it may both keep its own integrity and assimilate the still floating elements which surround it. Here, assuredly, if anywhere, inquiry should be free, because here, if anywhere, the means of its satisfaction are at hand."

Similar in plan, though of course mutatis mutandis, to the "Memorials of Harrow Sundays" are the "Half-hours in the Temple Church." They are selections from sermons preached to a very special congregation indeed. It cannot fail to be interesting when we hear how the affectionate

schoolmaster and the earnest parish priest moderates his utterances in presence of the grave benchers of the Temple. He is speaking, be it remarked, in the year 1870, on the great question of neutrality, and in reference to the historic dilemma of Gamaliel, and its conclusion—"Refrain from these men, and let them alone." "I would bid you," he says, "upon every question save one, to do likewise. Even upon some religious questions it is better to be in suspense than to judge wrong. If men come to you saying that this or that text ought to be differently read or differently interpreted—if men come to you bidding you believe this marvel or that, saying that they have seen a spirit, or held converse with the dead—nay, if they tell you that such or such a person has wrought a miracle of healing, or spoken in an unknown tongue—I know not that you could do better than say, with Gamaliel, 'Refrain from that man, and let him alone;' for if the idea be his own, it will come to nought—and if otherwise, let us not fight against truth. But there is just one subject which we must, by all means, exempt from this treatment; and that, inconsistent as it may appear, is the truth or falsehood of Christianity itself."

At the same time, the accusation of himself uttering an uncertain sound cannot be brought against Dr. Vaughan. His theological views, which are simply those of a Church of England divine, apart from all extremes, must, of course, be sought in his works passim; but they are admirably summarised in a little volume on the revision of the Liturgy, published in 1860. It consists of five discourses on such matters of present and perennial interest as (1) Absolution; (2) Regeneration; (3) The Athanasian Creed; (4) The Burial Service; (5) Holy Orders. He supposes an honest aspirant to the work of the ministry saying: "I do not understand, or I do not like, the use of certain words in the Baptismal Service, or in the Ordination Service, or in the Athanasian Creed, or in the Burial Service. Some of these things appear to me liable to the imputation of a tendency towards Romanism, others towards unreality, others towards uncharitableness." The book is a plain and simple exposition of the Church of England's answer, and it is worth whole libraries of controversial theology.

It is extremely interesting, too, to regard Dr. Vaughan from the point of view assumed by Nonconformists. One of the very highest of their periodicals, in an estimate of his life and work, says:—"There are no books we could place more willingly in the hands of thoughtful and cultured young men. He is in full sympathy with their difficulties and aspirations and struggles. He sees so clearly their real needs; he knows so well how to appeal to their higher nature; he is so bent on aiding them towards their true ideal. In fact, there is no aspect of life which he has overlooked. The young and the old, the rich and the poor, the ignorant and the learned, the doubter and the believer, the prosperous and the tried, all receive from him a word in season, and his volumes cover wellnigh the whole sphere of Christian doctrine and ethics."

In a later volume—one of the latest that has come from this prolific pen—Dr. Vaughan (though we know he will deprecate our saying so) might really have been summarising in our place his own biography. The volume is "Words of Hope from the Pulpit of the Temple Church;" the sermon is called "The Life that shall Live." How striking are the mere titles of these masterly discourses!—"Disinterestedness is the first condition of the everlasting man. Physician—barrister—clergyman—he cannot live for himself. He sees himself one link—a very insignificant link—in a chain which binds together two eternities. He cannot fall down and worship the link. He cannot say, '1 am the all and the only.' He must be true—he must be righteous—or he breaks the chain. For the chain is let down from the throne of God, and it fastens together—unintelligible else the union—God the Creator and God the Judge. . . After death, in

God's judgment—nay, in man's judgment—for it is a mistake to suppose that, in the long run, the longest run, there is much difference or contrariety between the two—it is disinterestedness which wins the race. When a man is gone, when his place is empty—and it was perhaps a small place—then men rub their eyes, and say, 'He lived not for himself—he might have been anything—anything—and he was not—God took him.'" Or, with a climax even finer still, occurring in the very same sermon:—"I dare to say that the ambition of living after death, as an example, as an incentive, as a burning and a shining light, is neither vulgar nor earthly. If I could feel that in this church, twenty-five years hence, men could say, 'I worship, I listen, I pray, with a keener, livelier devotion, because I remember that man standing, when I was a boy, in that pulpit,' I should thank God for it, and take courage."

This, we repeat, even at the risk of deprecation, is the very note and mark of Dr. Vaughan's ministry, varied and manifold as it has been—that it does leave this impression, not only on the plastic mind of youth, but on the apparently less impressionable surface of the adult heart. Down below the surface it penetrates. Far down it sows good seed, which, germinating here, shall bear its fruit beyond; both here and there fulfilling the beautiful aspiration of the Poet-Laureate, whose words we have once already, almost unconsciously, quoted, in reference to Dr. Vaughan:—

"Let knowledge grow from more to more, But more of roverence in us dwell; That mind and soul, according well, May make one music as before,

"But vaster" . . .

Dr. Vaughan married, in the year 1850, a sister of Dean Stanley.

[The Portrait prefixed to this Memoir is copied, by permission. from a Photograph by Messrs. Done & Co., 44, Baker Street,
Portman equare, W.]

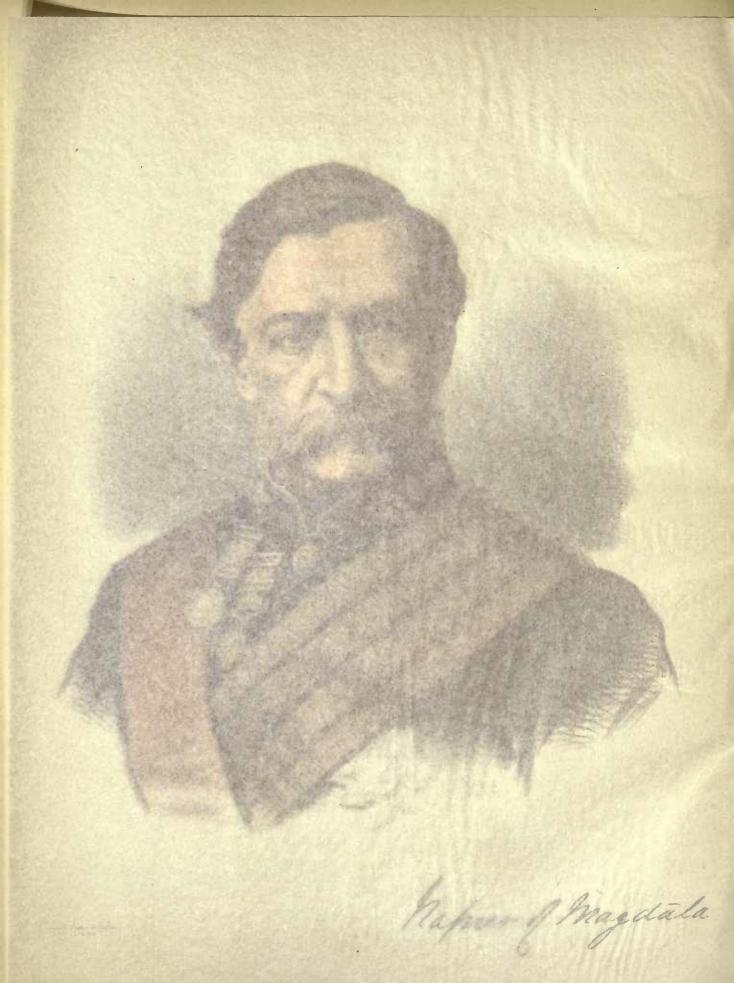




Rapier of Magdala

THE RIGHT HOX. LORD NAPPER OF MAGDALA.

DENCENDED (rom a family the several branches of which have from to time supplied the English gray and party with eminent leaders the Bight II. the English army and navy with eminent leaders, the Right Han. Robert Cornellis, Baron Napier of Magdala, was born in Ceylon, in 1810. His father was Major C. F. Napier, of the Royal Artillery; and his mother, Catherine, daughter of Codrington Carrington, Esq., of Blackmans, Barbadoes. He studied and completed his education at the Military College, Addiscombe, and at the age of eighteen years joined the corps of Bengal Engineers. The admirable training areas through, and the practical knowledge he acquired by his early connection with this transpling the convent. Surround this beyested of his future successful career. As a subaltern he was absentiable for the state of tention he pixel to every detail of his chosen profession; and is measured in in present degree that attribute of persoverance before which the thickest mist of deliverably struct on time yield and clear away. It was not ordained that young Napier should see active unlatary service during the early years of his career, and his actual participation in "war's glorious art" was deferred until he had attained the prime of manhood. He became Captain in 1841, and when, in 1845-46, the Sikh campaign on the Sutlej occurred, he procombed to the front with his regiment. At the battle of Moodkee, fought on the 18th of industries, 1945, he was present as Oviet Regineer, and in the course of the action had his horse willied under him. Although sneeds ultimately attended the British arms, the engagement resulted in severy losses; but the General in command, nevertheless, declared that he had every reason to be proud of and gratified with the exertions of the whole of the officers and troops of the army on this ardnous occasion. Following closely on the heels of Moodkee came the battle of Ferozeshah, which was fought on the 21st of the same month. This was a most desperate battle, and the loss sustained by the British army was again exceedingly havy The number of Sikh soldiers whom the English had to encounter was sixty thousand Yaway-sil in a state of complete preparation for battle. The official despatches do not specify the English, but, according to private accounts, they did not exceed twenty Captaca Napter was wounded in this engagement, and his horse was killed under the 14th of February in the following year was fought the battle of Sobraon, the the countries are grated struggers, and on the issue of which the fate of the campaign was here present as Brigade Major. Of the behaviour of the native troops with Sie Hugh Gough (afterwards Lord Gough) wrote: - "The English army really was sharted more defermined bravery than that with which the bettalion of Ghoorings, the No. and Nossered, met the Sikhs whenever they were opposed to them. Soldiers of small mature but indominable, these troops yied in ardent courage in the charge will the British groundless, and, armed with the short weapon of their mountains, were a terns to the Sikhs throughout the combat." In the list of staff and engineer officers to



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DESCENDED from a family the several branches of which have from time to time supplied the English army and navy with eminent leaders, the Right Hon. Robert Cornelis, Baron Napier of Magdala, was born in Ceylon, in 1810. His father was Major C. F. Napier, of the Royal Artillery; and his mother, Catherine, daughter of Codrington Carrington, Esq., of Blackmans, Barbadoes. He studied and completed his education at the Military College, Addiscombe, and at the age of eighteen years joined the corps of Bengal Engineers. The admirable training he went through, and the practical knowledge he acquired by his early connection with this branch of the service, formed the keystone of his future successful eareer. As a subaltern he was remarkable for the strict attention he paid to every detail of his chosen profession; and he possessed in an unusual degree that attribute of perseverance before which the thickest mist of difficulty must in time yield and clear away. It was not ordained that young Napier should see active military service during the early years of his career, and his actual participation in "war's glorious art" was deferred until he had attained the prime of manhood. He became Captain in 1841, and when, in 1845-46, the Sikh campaign on the Sutlej occurred, he proceeded to the front with his regiment. At the battle of Moodkee, fought on the 18th of December, 1845, he was present as Chief Engineer, and in the course of the action had his horse killed under him. Although success ultimately attended the British arms, the engagement resulted in severe losses; but the General in command, nevertheless, declared that he had every reason to be proud of and gratified with the exertions of the whole of the officers and troops of the army on this arduous occasion. Following closely on the heels of Moodkee came the battle of Ferozeshah, which was fought on the 21st of the same mouth. This was a most desperate battle, and the loss sustained by the British army was again exceedingly heavy. The number of Sikh soldiers whom the English had to encounter was sixty thousand strong—all in a state of complete preparation for battle. The official despatches do not specify the number of the English; but, according to private accounts, they did not exceed twenty thousand. Captain Napier was wounded in this engagement, and his horse was killed under On the 14th of February in the following year was fought the battle of Sobraon, the final contest in this eventful struggle, and on the issue of which the fate of the campaign hung. Captain Napier was here present as Brigade Major. Of the behaviour of the native troops in this battle Sir Hugh Gough (afterwards Lord Gough) wrote:- "The English army itself never exhibited more determined bravery than that with which the battalion of Ghoorkhas, the Sirmoor and Nusseree, met the Sikhs whenever they were opposed to them. Soldiers of small stature but indomitable, these troops vied in ardent courage in the charge with the British grenadiers, and, armed with the short weapon of their mountains, were a terror to the Sikhs throughout the combat." In the list of staff and engineer officers to

which Sir Hugh Gough drew special attention, appeared the name of Captain Robert Napier, Major of Brigade of Engineers. The distinguished services rendered by Napier in these engagements, and in the subsequent advance on Lahore, caused him to be mentioned in the official despatches, with the result that he was rewarded with a medal and two clasps, and was promoted to the rank of Major. It should also be mentioned that Captain Napier was specially intrusted with the siege of the hill fort of Kangra, and that he received the thanks of Government for his services in the transport of the siege-train to that place.

On the conclusion of the Sutlej campaign, in 1846, Major Napier, who had attracted the notice of the late Sir Henry Lawrence, was appointed to the responsible position of Engineer to the Durbar of Lahore. It may readily be supposed that a man like Napier would not throw away such a golden opportunity for making himself thoroughly acquainted with a country the internal resources of which it would, in all probability, some day be found necessary to develop, and he consequently took every advantage of his position to increase his knowledge of the Punjaub and its surroundings. The special knowledge thus acquired was afterwards of the utmost value to the Indian Government, when, as Chief Engineer under the new Punjaub Administration, he was enabled to carry out the plans he had considered for covering that almost trackless country with arteries of commercial and military highways, to construct magnificent canals destined to fertilise the arid Dooab, and finally to cause the erection of numerous public buildings necessary to the efficient administration of the new province.

After a few years of comparative quietness, again came the cry "havoc," and the dogs of war were once more let slip in India. In the Punjaub campaign, which spread over the years 1848-49, Major Napier was called upon to play a very prominent part, and acted as Chief Engineer during the greater portion of the siege of Mooltan in 1849, on which occasion he was severely wounded. At the fall of this place he accompanied General Wish's force to the fords of the Chenaub, and, after joining the main army under Lord Gough, was present, as Commanding Engineer of the right wing, at the battle of Goojerat. He also joined Sir Walter Gilbert in his pursuit of the Sikh army. For the services rendered in this campaign he was promoted to the rank of Colonel, and named (as has already been mentioned) Chief Engineer under the new Punjaub Administration. He also received a medal and two clasps. The energy and ability he displayed in the rapid development of the resources of the Punjaub won for him golden opinions, and it was universally admitted that the Indian Government could not have selected a more suitable man for the purpose. In 1852 Colonel Napier commanded a column which defeated the Hussunzie tribe on the Black Mountains in Hazara, and in that and the following year he took part in the expedition against the Boree Afreedees. Upon the conclusion of these operations he again received the special thanks of Government for the able manner in which he had carried them out, and was once more the recipient of a medal with clasp. When, in 1857, the flames of rebellion threatened to destroy the British domination in India, and the eyes of the world were turned towards a contest upon the issue of which it is scarcely too much to say the future of England and her dependencies rested, Colonel Napicr again appeared upon the field, and served with distinction throughout the whole of the Mutiny. He acted as Chief of the Staff to Sir James Outram, and was present in the several actions leading to the first relief of Lucknow in September-Mungarwar, Alumbagh, and Charbagh. He commanded the troops in the rescue of the siege-train which had been surrounded and cut off in the suburbs; the sortie for the capture of Philips' Garden Battery, and other more or less important engagements, in one of which he was somewhat severely wounded. He also took part,

as Chief of the Staff, in the latter operations at the Alumbagh after the second relief of Lucknow, and likewise in the siege and ultimate capture of that city. It was Colonel Napier who, at the siege of Lucknow, planned that bridging of the Goomtee river which exercised so great an influence on the operations for the overthrow of the enemy. He was mentioned in despatches, and the distinction of C.B. conferred upon him. At the capture of Gwalior he commanded a brigade, and being appointed to the command (in conjunction with Sir Hugh Rose) of the force despatched to disperse the rebels reunited under Tantia Topee, he utterly defeated the latter at Joura-Alipore, and captured twenty-five guns. In recognition of this brilliant exploit he received the thanks of Parliament, and was made a K.C.B. In August, 1858, at which time Sir Robert Napier was in command of the Gwalior division, he bombarded and reduced the fort of Powrie. It is not possible to mention in detail the numerous engagements in which Sir Robert took part during the continuance of the Mutiny, and the already long list must be closed by mention of the affair at Ranode, where, after five days' close pursuit, Sir Robert, with a squadron of the 14th Hussars, surprised and defeated the force under Feroze Shah. A medal with three clasps was added to Sir Robert's already numerous decorations for the gallant manner in which he carried out this hazardous enterprise.

It is to a certain extent the mission of civilised nations to inculcate on barbarous or semibarbarous communities the necessity of opening up the regions occupied by them, in order that the world in general may receive the benefit of such commodities as may there exist, and at the same time to impress upon such communities the manifold advantages which must accrue to themselves by establishing free communication with foreigners who, from one cause or another, have surpassed them in trade, science, and manufacture. But, on the other hand, there are nations who very much object to counsel of this description, and resent the well-meant endeavours of their more eivilised fellow-ereatures, as an unwarrantable interference with an exclusive policy in which they have rejoiced for countless ages. It has always been the endeavour of the ruling authorities of the Flowery Land to close the gates of the Celestial Empire against the foot of the stranger, and it has needed many and severe lessons to convince those exalted personages that that portion of the world which does not consist of China is determined to penetrate into, and bring its influences to bear upon, those thousands of square miles which have for centuries been virtually a terra incognita to those who have had the misfortune to be born outside their frontiers. It is quite open to a few narrow-minded persons to remark that a nation possesses the right to frame its own laws, and that it does not lie within the province of other nations to dietate to it what shall or shall not form the basis of its legislature. In theory this objection unquestionably stands good enough, but when regulations are enacted with a view to debar mankind in general from participating in certain advantages which obtain in that particular country, they smack so strongly of selfishness and disregard for the requirements of others, that it is incumbent that their enforcement should not be permitted by those whose interests they are calculated seriously to injure. It was the determination of the Chinese to exclude from their dominions the "outer barbarians"-by which title they are pleased to allude to the inhabitants of the Western countries—that indirectly led to the China campaigns of 1859 and 1860.

As a matter of history, the first of these did not result favourably for the British arms, the powers of resistance possessed by the Chinese being very much underrated by the military authorities. The reverses of 1859 were, however, amply avenged in the following year. When the question arose as to whom should be confided the command under Sir Hope Grant, it

found a ready answer in the name of Sir Robert Napier; and, as the Times justly puts it, "no man could have been found more fitted for the purpose." Passing over one or two small-engagements, it may at once be said that the operations leading to the conquest of the Taku forts, constituted as dashing a little campaign of eight days as English and French soldiers could hope to see in the land of Cathay. When the allies had established themselves at Pehtang, they had still a march of twelve miles before they could arrive at the object of their attack. According to all previous experience, it would have been expected that the road would be open, that the Chinamen would trust, as usual, to precedents, and would await the advance of their enemies from the sea and the mouth of the river, which the forts defended. But even the Chinamen had been beaten into some knowledge of the art of war, and it was found that positions upon the road between Pehtang and the Peiho had not only been taken up with considerable military skill, but had also been fortified with a large amount of care. A Tartar camp had been formed, and the best troops which China could produce had been placed behind the works and within the entrenched encampment. The advance along this route was made against an enemy who in desperate courage seems scarcely to have been inferior even to his assailants, and if he had been armed with the same weapons as were brought against him, instead of with gingalls, matchlocks, and bows and arrows, the contest might have been deemed worthy to stand side by side in history with famous European battles. But the Armstrong guns-which then saw service for the first time-rent the walls, and their shells burst with deadly effect in the midst of their defenders. It is not needful to recount the gallant manner in which the forts were stormed and taken, but it is necessary and gratifying to state that the bridges, roads, batteries, earthworks-in short, all the preparations for attack, were made exclusively by the second division of the British army, under the command of Sir Robert Napier, our allies only arriving on the ground at the hour appointed for opening fire. "Nothing," writes an eminent authority, "could exceed the skill and ability with which these difficult operations were conducted by Sir Robert As a proof of the admirable manner in which the arrangements were planned and earried out, it is only necessary to remark that these forts, which had previously successfully defied the British attack, were captured within three hours and a half after the firing of the first shot. A few days after their fall Sir Robert reviewed his division, and in an open-hearted, frauk manner, thanked his officers for the assistance they had so cheerfully afforded him in carrying out his plans during the late attack, and complimented his men on the endurance and individual gallantry each had displayed; and, in conclusion, congratulated one and all on the successful issue of the struggle which had so gloriously vindicated the tarnished honour of the British arms. During the thickest of the fight Sir Robert had an extraordinary escape. He was quietly surveying the enemy's position, when a ball hit the binocular-glass in his hand without injuring him. Captain Brooke, his aide-de-camp, was wounded in the leg; and Major Greathead, on his staff, had his trousers torn open by a ball. The capture of Pekin, and the subsequent burning of the Summer Palace, are events with which Sir Robert Napier's name is so inseparably associated, that it may not be out of place to give a brief sketch of the operations which led to those results. The English siege-artillery arrived before Pekin on the 9th of October, and it was demanded that the Anting Gate should be given up to be held by the allies, as a security for the good faith of the Chinese, while the ambassadors entered the city for the purpose of ratifying the treaties. The hour of noon on the 13th following was fixed as the latest hour that the city would be spared in the event of this demand not being complied with. When the 13th came, the Chinese still held possession of the gate, and although noon was rapidly

approaching, showed no signs of intending to surrender it. The artillery officers in charge of the batteries commenced getting everything ready for opening fire; the guns were sponged out, and run back for loading, with the gunners standing to their guns, waiting for the orders to commence. Sir Robert Napier stood by with a watch in his hand, counting the minutes as they passed. Five minutes to twelve came. Every one was eager and excited, and the order to fire was almost on the lips of Sir Robert, when Colonel Stephenson came galloping to the spot, and announced that the gate had been surrendered. Had the Chinese authorities been conversant with Latin, and had they remembered that Ovid wrote, "Principiis obsta, sero medicina paratur cum mala per longas convaluere moras," they would probably have thought twice before they delayed the surrender of the Anting Gate until the last moment, for any little accident might have brought upon their city such a shower of shot and shell as would have taught them a lesson on the dangers of vacillation not soon to be forgotten.

Of the burning of the Summer Palace—which act, it should be borne in mind, was intended as a punishment which would be personally felt by the Emperor of China, that inhuman miscreant having caused some English and other prisoners to be tortured within the precincts of the Palace-it is unnecessary to speak at length; suffice to say that it had a most salutary effect on the Chinese, and furnished them with a convincing proof that the avenging arm of England never fails in the long run to reach its enemies. All loot taken prior to the burning of the Palace had been, by order of Sir Hope Grant, sold by auction, and the proceeds formed into a prize-fund for general distribution in sums proportionate to rank, a private soldier's share amounting to seventeen dollars—equal to about three pounds twelve shillings sterling. Hope Grant, whose share would have been a large one, generously relinquished his claim, an act of liberality which was followed by Sir Robert Napier and Sir John Michel, the sum falling to the subordinate ranks being thereby considerably increased. For his services in this campaign Sir Robert received the thanks of Parliament—this being the second occasion upon which he had been the recipient of this distinguished honour-obtained a medal with three clasps, was promoted Major-General for distinguished services, and was appointed the successor to the late Sir James Outram as a military member of the Council of the Governor-General of India, which post he retained until January, 1865. In this year he was nominated to succeed Sir William Mansfield as Commander-in-Chief of Bombay.

When in the following year the Government found it necessary to declare war against that semi-civilised monarch Theodore of Abyssinia, general satisfaction was expressed at the announcement. Not that it was a war for which any considerable amount of enthusiasm was felt, as there could be no gain to the national glory, and no particular national advantage would accrue; but an insult to the country was to be avenged, and several of our fellow-countrymen released from a captivity into which they had been thrown in violation of every law existing between nations. It may therefore be said that, although the English people did not enter very heartily into the campaign, and gave more than a passing thought to the probable call upon their pockets, yet they were quite agreed as to its necessity. Of course, so soon as war was determined upon, the newspapers teemed with suggestions from every one who knew anything about Abyssinia, and from a large number of individuals who were utterly ignorant of that country and its characteristics. Although these writers naturally differed on a great many points, they all agreed that the expedition was one of considerable difficulty and danger, and the pictures they drew of the sufferings our soldiers would have to undergo were enough to chill the blood of the bravest. In the face of the horrors thus conjured up, the preparations went

steadily on, English officers being sent to Spain, Egypt, and other countries in order to purchase mules. At Woolwich all was activity; troop-ships were got ready, and immense quantities of stores were issued from the Tower. As it was decided that the expedition—so far as troops were concerned—should be entirely an Indian one, and that to the Bombay Administration should belong the honour as well as the responsibility of all the arrangements, England's participation in the undertaking was ended when she had contributed her quota of stores and other necessaries. No sooner did the order arrive from England to equip an expedition with all speed than Sir Seymour Fitzgerald, the Governor of Bombay, and Sir Robert Napier as Commander-in-Chief of the Bombay Army, commenced its organisation. Unquestionably a large amount of credit is due to Sir Seymour Fitzgerald for the zeal with which he entered into the matter; he was, in truth, indefatigable; still it is an open question as to the advisability of vesting in a civilian the arrangements connected with an expedition of this magnitude. He must necessarily be to a certain extent ignorant of the requirements of an armed force, and must therefore rely upon others for enlightenment. However, the arrangement was so made, with the result that Sir Robert Napier was compelled to consult the Governor on all matters, and the Governor again had to take the opinion of his own military adviser, an officer far below Sir Robert Napier in rank and experience. The suggestions of the latter were thus liable to be overruled, nominally by the Governor, but practically by a subordinate officer. It will be well to quote an instance of this: -Early in September, Sir Robert Napier sent in to the Governor for approval his plan for a transport-train; this plan was, however, entirely put aside, and no new scheme was issued by the Governor until two months afterwards; thus Sir Robert, who when once arrived in Abyssinia was entirely responsible for everything, was liable to have the whole of his plans upset by the failure of a transport-train, in the organisation of which he had no hand whatever. How accurately Sir Robert estimated the difficulties of the work to be performed, and how deeply he thought over every detail, will be seen from the memoranda issued by him, of which a few extracts are here given. In his memorandum of August 8th, Sir Robert Napier estimates that he will require 12,000 men, for that 2,000 must remain at the port, and at Post No. 1 on the high land (Senape); 2,000 men at Antalo, or at some similar point in advance; and 2,000 men to keep open communication with the advanced column, and to support it if necessary. In the minute of August 31st, he further develops his plans. He there speaks of Post No. 1 as at Zulla, Post No. 2 as at Senape, Post No. 3 as at Antalo, "which," he says, "will be of great importance, and should be very strong." "Post No. 4 will probably be not far from Socota, which will also be a very vital point. It is in a difficult and rugged country, and will be our last main base of supplies from which the operating force will he supported." Further on he says: "It will be necessary to convey to our extreme base, which for convenience I will call Socota, for the force required to hold that mountainous country, and for the corps of operation (probably in all 7,000 men) supplies for four months." These extracts are particularly interesting as they disclose the plans of the campaign as originally laid down by Sir Robert. Sir Robert himself selected the various regiments, and a considerable discussion ensued between the different Presidencies, Madras and Bengal naturally desiring to have an equal share in the expedition. Sir Robert's arguments in favour of the course he pursued were, however, irresistible. He wrote: "I consider it especially of advantage to have the native regiments, if possible, of one army, as they work in harmony with and rely upon each other; if they are of different Presidencies, feelings of great bitterness arise when one or other is left in the rear, and partialities are conjured up as the reason why one or other is not taken to the front."

On the particulars of the march to Magdala, and its capture on the 13th of April, 1868, it is unnecessary to dwell; suffice to say that the Abyssinian Expedition was a more perfect and extraordinary success than the most sanguine could have predicted. It would, in the face of the terrible forebodings which were launched when it was first set about, have seemed almost an impossibility that the journey should be made, Theodore's army defeated and almost annihilated, the whole of the prisoners rescued, the fortress of Magdala stormed, Theodore killed, and the return made before the rains, with the loss of only one man dead from his wounds, and two or three from sickness. It is impossible to give too much credit to Sir Robert Napier for the admirable manner in which he carried out the campaign. He had to contend with innumerable difficulties, one and all of which he surmounted with surprising skill. England had just reason to be proud of the campaign, proud of the gallant and hardy army, whose endurance and labour carried it to a successful issue, and doubly proud of her General, who had proved himself a General in every sense of the word.

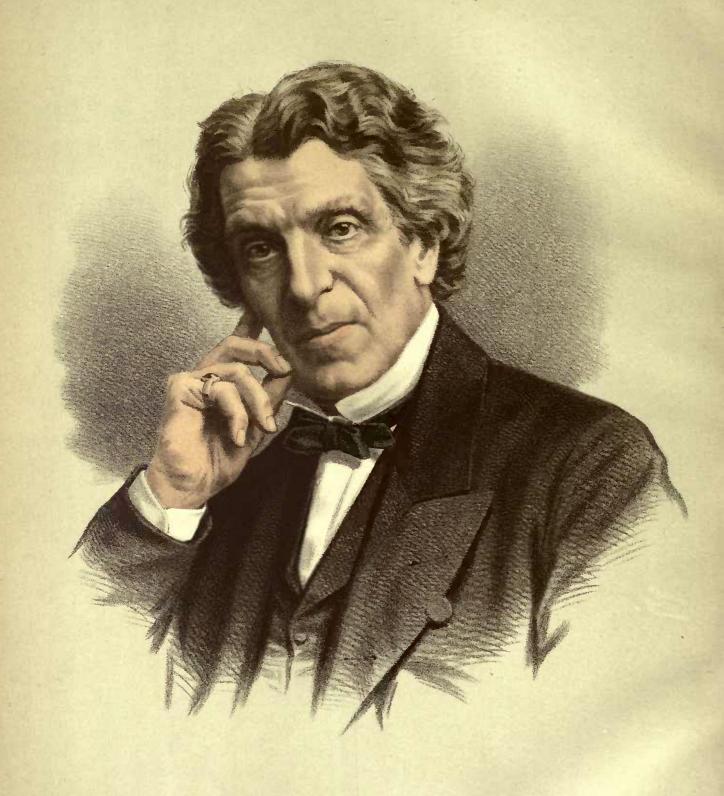
On the conclusion of the campaign, Sir Robert proceeded to England, and arrived at Dover on the 2nd of July, where, upon landing, he was received with enthusiastic cheers, and a congratulatory address presented to him by the Corporation. The same evening he left for Windsor on a visit to the Queen. Desirous of testifying, without loss of time, to the appreciation in which his services were held, a vote of thanks was passed in both Houses of Parliament on the evening of the day on which he reached England; the Earl of Malmesbury in the Lords, and Mr. Disraeli in the Commons, proposing, "That the thanks of this House be given to Lieutenant-General Sir Robert Napier, K.C.B., G.C.S.I., for the exemplary skill with which he planned, and the distinguished energy, courage, and perseverance with which he conducted the recent expedition into Abyssinia, resulting in the defeat by Her Majesty's forces of the army of King Theodore, and the vindication of the honour of the country by the rescue from captivity of Her Majesty's Envoy and other British subjects, and by the capture and destruction of the strong fortress of Magdala." In proposing this vote Mr. Disraeli said that he rose to move that the thanks of the House be given to those who planned and accomplished one of the most remarkable military enterprises of this century. He pointed out the extraordinary difficulties which beset the expedition, the admirable manner in which they had been overcome by Sir Robert Napier, and drew attention to an event of peculiar interest to Englishmen, the hoisting of the standard of St. George on the mountains of Rasselas. "Happy," said Mr. Disraeli, "is the man who has been thrice thanked by his country! for the House of Commons will remember that this is not the first, nor even the second time that it has offered to him its thanks. By his splendid achievements in Abyssinia," continued Mr. Disraeli, "Sir Robert Napier has only fulfilled the promise of the plains of India, and consummated his exploits on the Chinese field." He said that had it not been for Sir Robert Napier's management of men-not merely in the skilful handling of his troops on an exhausting march, but in the way in which he moulded the dispositions of the native princes—the result might have been different. And he moulded them to his purpose without involving his country in any perilous Under these circumstances he felt sure that the House would contract or engagement. heartily offer and vote its thanks to the distinguished man in question. On the 10th of July a message from the Queen was read in both Houses of Parliament; it ran as follows:-"Her Majesty, taking into consideration the important services rendered by Sir Robert Napier, a Lieutenant-General in Her Majesty's Army, and Commander-in-Chief of the Army of Bombay, in the conduct of the recent expedition into Abyssinia, and being desirous to confer some signal

mark of her favour for these and other distinguished merits upon the said Sir Robert Napier, recommends it to the House of Commons (and Lords) to enable Her Majesty to make provision for securing to the said Sir Robert Napier, and the next surviving heir male of his body, a pension of £2,000 per annum." It is scarcely necessary to add that Her Majesty's recommendation was unanimously agreed to. Sir Robert was made a G.C.B. and raised to the peerage in the course of the same month, under the title of Baron Napier, of Magdala in Abyssinia, and of Caryngton in the County Palatine of Chester. Among other marks of honour, his lordship was publicly presented on the 21st of July with the honorary freedom of the Corporation of the City of London, accompanied by a sword of the value of 200 guineas; and on the 17th of September following he also received the freedom of the City of Edinburgh. His lordship was elected a Fellow of the Royal Society, December 16th, 1869, and in January, 1870, he was appointed to succeed Sir William Mansfield as Commander-in-Chief of the Forces in India, receiving at the same time the local rank of General. During the same year he was nominated fifth ordinary member of the Council of the Governor-General of India. In 1876 he was appointed Governor and Commander-in-Chief of Gibraltar.

His lordship married first (1840) Anne Sarah, daughter of George Pease, Esq., M.D., H.E.I.C.S. (this lady died in 1849); and secondly (1861) Mary Cecilia, daughter of Major-General Edward W. S. Scott, Royal Artillery, Bengal.

[The Portrait prefixed to this Memoir is copied, by permission, from a Photograph by Messrs. Lombardi & Co., 13, Pall Mall East, S.W.]

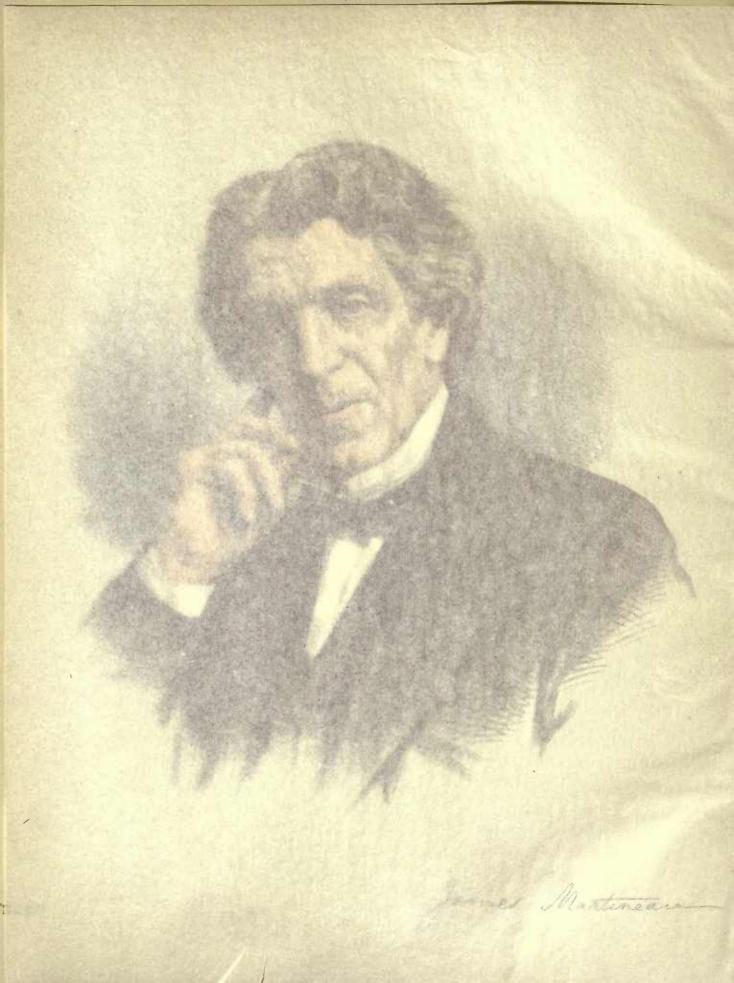




James Martineau

THE REV. JAMES MARRINGAU.

TWENTE Row Section Martineau was born at Research on the Star of April 1866 the screetly I child in a warmer of eight. His town or Passes, a many ranger and wine-merchant, was the second of a sincle Philip-as success of a same of a large family, of Hagonesia and the Country of the English Broader Steems and a major of the 25 Security as an even contractor a consecut of the Bout of Nation of the Christoph, Handard Rankin, was my their regular of the below Lander of Legisland per-Tree, and was perhaps the period profession of a facely whose excellent of silvery and also select was above the company to a sense to pay the production of more and the product to a sense of more the thought of the witness then been of selected with the belowing took though always engage alter to the a limiter and admiration of her heatened the chief part to the government all the become an indicate beer children in wholesome habits and cloves arts, and stimulating them by her sparking conversation. From ten to fourteen years of ago, young Eartinean was a day scholar at the grammar-school of which Bishop Salmon was the founder, held up the Cathedral Close. This was an old foundation of the fourteenth century, and not without the discretions; Archive Parker, Bishop Cousins, Cains, Coke, Nelson, Bishops Monta and Marthy, all baving been educated by st, and Dr. Samuel Pars basing been once its head-masse, as Educat Valpy was at that there. Its standard of element elementary was more than respectable. Mr. Vulpy, indeed, positioned and used as English Latin Communication on consecution but took his pupils through the regular drill of unanstate lines, compendance of perthalogy, and versemaking. Foreign not staying to much its highest form, the last new few paterns in Latin, and a great start in Greek, being this Homer and Xenophor " whom he had knowing his two hundred and thirty adjournables were for James Brooke, Rajah of Francisc studies who pericked with Consily in Rokhara, Conego Borrow, of gipsy and Bible Consily in Rokhara, Conego Borrow, of gipsy and Bible Consily in Rokhara, Conego Borrow, of gipsy and Bible Consily in Rokhara, Conego Borrow, of gipsy and Bible Consily in Rokhara, Conego Borrow, of gipsy and Bible Consily in Rokhara, Conego Borrow, of gipsy and Bible Consily in Rokhara, Conego Borrow, of gipsy and Bible Consily in Rokhara, Conego Borrow, of gipsy and Bible Consily in Rokhara, Conego Borrow, of gipsy and Bible Consily in Rokhara, Conego Borrow, of gipsy and Bible Consily in Rokhara, Conego Borrow, of gipsy and Bible Consily in Rokhara, Conego Borrow, of gipsy and Bible Consily in Rokhara, Conego Borrow, of gipsy and Bible Conego Borrow, of gipsy and gipsy highly, and John Dals upply, suggest practitioners of the married and. The next three were inc as quations in study and in year. At Norwich Grammar-school, as at most manual places at the time-and we fear in some extent still at present-the swap of the resider and counter was and painfully felt by the younger boys, and was exhibited as particularly insulting british where called the "imputerys" -that is to say, the boys for whom the school was beinged. were the ends were the ends were strictly speaking, who had any right to be there. Chester the when a smal, the array of the school, the lad's own preference for mathematics was the therefore, some desiderate in his education, sent a process the second that been seens of right and wrong underwood in the second second a small arguet endered his parents to modifiate a change for him. Since a change the fruits of a per-



THE REV. JAMES MARTINEAU.

THE Rev. James Martineau was born at Norwich, on the 21st of April, 1805—the seventh child in a family of eight. His father, Thomas, a manufacturer and wine-merchant, was the youngest, as his uncle Philip—an eminent surgeon—was the eldest, of a large family, of Huguenot descent, whose English founder, Gaston-also a surgeon-settled in Norwich as an exile, after the revocation of the Ediet of Nantes, in 1685. His mother, Elizabeth Rankin, was the eldest daughter of Mr. Robert Rankin, of Newcastle-upon-Tyne, and was perhaps the most gifted member of a family whose standard of ability and character was above Of great energy and quickness of resource, and married to a man of more tenderness and moral refinement than force of self-assertion, she naturally took (though always supported by the authority and admiration of her husband) the chief part in the government of the household; training her children in wholesome habits and clever arts, and stimulating them by her sparkling conversation. From ten to fourteen years of age, young Martineau was a day-seholar at the grammar-school of which Bishop Salmon was the founder, held in the Cathedral Close. This was an old foundation of the fourteenth century, and not without its distinctions; Archbishop Parker, Bishop Cousins, Caius, Coke, Nelson, Bishops Monk and Malthy, all having been educated in it, and Dr. Samuel Parr having been once its head-master, as Edward Valpy was at this time. Its standard of classical education was more than respectable. Mr. Valpy, indeed, published and used an English Latin Grammar—then an innovation—but took his pupils through the regular drill of mnemonic lines, compendiums of mythology, and versemaking. Though not staying to reach its highest form, the lad made fair progress in Latin, and a good start in Greek, being "in Homer and Xenophon" when he left. Among his two hundred and thirty schoolfellows were Sir James Brooke, Rajah of Sarawak; Stodart, who perished with Conolly in Bokhara; George Borrow, of gipsy and Bible-eireulating celebrity; Edward Rigby, and John Dalrymple, eminent practitioners of the medical art. The last three were his companions in study and in play. At Norwich Grammar-school, as at most similar places at that time—and we fear to some extent still at present—the sway of the rougher and coarser natures was painfully felt by the younger boys, and was exhibited in particularly insulting forms to what were ealled the "day-boys"—that is to say, the boys for whom the school was founded, and who were the only ones, strictly speaking, who had any right to be there. Classics, too, being, as usual, the order of the school, the lad's own preference for mathematics was kept in provoking subordination. Possibly, therefore, some desiderata in his education, and a perception of the suffering their boy's keen sense of right and wrong underwent in the rough experiences of a public school, induced his parents to meditate a change for him. Most opportunely, his sister Harriet brought nome with her at this time the fruits of a period of school-life at

Bristol, and spoke with enthusiastic gratitude of the influence over her of the classes and pulpit services of Dr. Lant Carpenter—father of the well-known physiologist, Dr. W. B. Carpenter, and Mary Carpenter. Mr. Martineau, always ready to strain every nerve to advance the education of his children, determined to find the hundred guineas a year which would make his boy one of Dr. Carpenter's dozen pupils; and for two years he enjoyed that inestimable privilege. In the Life of Dr. Lant Carpenter by his son, there is a letter of most interesting reminiscence, by Dr. Martineau, in which he speaks of his time under Dr. C. as visibly determining the subsequent direction of his mind and lot. Though the machinery of rules and habits devised for the maintenance of punctuality and order was more complicated and extensive than he had ever seen in operation elsewhere, never was there less indolent trust in mere routine. The mechanism served, and never ruled, and at its remotest points felt the thrill of some high purpose as its moving-power. There were none of those vehement good beginnings of regularity and industry, followed by chronic declension towards laxity and indulgence, and cured after sufficient uneasiness by periodic spasms of reform, which constitute the history, more or less disguised, of many a family.

At the age of sixteen young Martineau was placed in the machine-works of Mr. Fox, at Derby, and resided in the family of the Rev. Edward Higginson. The hours of employment were spent entirely at the turning-lathe, or the work-bench of the model-room. His master, an ingenious and energetic man, had himself been an artisan, and was hardly competent to give systematic instruction in mechanics. In spite of the youth's taste for the work, therefore, this total want of intellectual help disappointed him, and he not unnaturally looked with dismay at the prospect of devoting five years to mastering the construction of a very limited class of machines. The high ambitions and the great possibilities of spiritual usefulness which had opened themselves up to his mind under the influences of Dr. Lant Carpenter's life and ministry, no doubt remained very deeply impressed upon him, and, added to the natural seriousness and religiousness of his character, turned his thoughts away from mechanical drudgery to the work of the Christian ministry. His father, warning him that he was courting poverty, suppressed nevertheless his disappointment, and bore without reproach the forfeiture of the premium he had paid for him. Thus in his eighteenth year he was entered as a divinity-student at Manchester New College*—then at York—his father undertaking to bear the expense of his continued education. Here he devoted himself, with the conscientious exactness which had always distinguished him, to the special studies of the place and of each session; and his few surviving friends and fellow-students still remember the method and precision, the industry and intenseness, and the at times almost ascetic severity with which he regulated his student-life.

At the close of his college career, in 1827, he accepted an invitation to help Dr. Carpenter in his school at Bristol, and spent a year there of continuous labour and severe mental tension. Of his few relaxations the most enjoyable was his admission, by the recommendation of Dr. Prichard, the author of the "Physical History of Man," to a small, almost private, philosophical society of about twelve members, at whose meetings he heard the ablest local men—including John Foster, Prichard, Conybeare—discuss the gravest questions. He was also a frequent hearer of the distinguished Baptist preacher, Robert Hall. In the next—the twenty-fourth year of his age—he became junior minister of Eustace Street Presbyterian Meeting-

^{*} This college—since removed to London—and of which Dr. Martineau himself is now the head, maintains "the principle of freely imparting theological knowledge without insisting on the adoption of particular theological doctrines."

house, Dublin, the senior acting-pastor being the Rev. Joseph Hutton, grandfather of Mr. Richard Holt Hutton.

Dr. Carpenter gave up his boys'-sehool in consequence of having to forego his assistance at Bristol. In Dublin Mr. Martineau was ordained according to the use of the Presbyterian Church, and in December of the same year married Helen, the eldest child of the Rev. Edward Higginson, of Derby, after a long engagement. In addition to his ministerial duties, which, however, were not heavy, he had half a dozen pupils in his house, some entirely under his own care, and the rest already entered at Trinity College. At York he had been taught to do his work in mathematics by the fluxional instead of the differential notation, and had studied Hebrew without the points. At Dublin he had to accommodate himself immediately to altered methods; but, we need hardly say, with his invincible energy, he mastered the necessary changes.

In Dublin he found himself in the midst of a highly-charged and sensitive atmosphere, both theological and political. In addition to several trials of his larger and freer spirit, on the death of his senior colleague, the Rev. Philip Taylor, the regium donum—an annual allowance to the Presbyterian ministers from the Crown, which had been made uninterruptedly from the year 1690necessarily fell to him. Whether the theoretical objections to any organic connection between Church and State would alone have decided him in reference to this matter, we doubt; but four years' residence in Ireland had brought before him so strongly the gross injustice involved in the relative position of the Catholic Church and the two chief Protestant bodies, that the very idea of being personally participant in it affected him with shame; and though quite willing himself to sacrifice the additional income (about £100), if that would have solved the difficulty, he could hardly expect his congregation to deprive themselves and their future ministers of it; and this, they very decidedly and rather abruptly made him aware, they were not disposed to do. Notwithstanding the drawbacks we have indicated, life in Dublin had been made very happy to him by the close friendship of many who hailed his struggle for more liberal thought and action with appreciation and sympathy, and by occasional intercourse with its general society, in which the veteran Hamilton Rowan was then a distinguished figure, and Lover and Lady Morgan notable elements.

He was thus left with his wife and young family, his establishment of college students broken up—to perfect which he had expended large sums of money upon his house—disqualified by his refusal of the regium donum for re-settlement among the Irish Presbyterians, and as yet little known on the east side of the Channel. But the English Presbyterians—now long distinguished by the more familiar name of Unitarians—the spirit of whose leading laity was always on the side of worthy and conscientious struggles for freedom of thought, immediately set their eye The Rev. John Grundy, minister of Paradise Chapel, in Liverpool, requiring a colleague, the wealthy merchants constituting the chief part of his congregation united with him in the desire to secure the services of the young and brilliant minister, and thus offer him at once the tribute of their honour and confidence, and an open field of thought and speech. Well does the writer remember (1877), though it is forty-five years ago, how the circular staircase of the somewhat conspieuous pulpit was quietly ascended by a tall young man, thin, but of vigorous and museular frame, with dark hair, pale but not delicate complexion, a countenance full in repose of thought, and in animation of intelligence and enthusiasm, features belonging to no regular type or order of beauty, and yet leaving the impression of a very high kind of beauty, and a voice so sweet, and clear, and strong, without being in the least degree loud, that it conveyed all the inspiration

of music without any of its art or intention. When this young man, with the background of his honour and courage, rose to speak of the inspiration that was not in the letter but in the soul, and (for that time of day) boldly distinguished between the inspiration of Old Testament books and Old Testament heroes, he completed the conquest of his hearers.

To add to his half of the chapel income, he proposed to meet a real want of the time, by private lessons to young persons past the school age, and needing guidance in their subsequent self-culture. This plan, while affording a delightful source of intellectual sympathy with a succession of thoughtful young persons, preserved his own mental stores from rusting, and even enlarged them by fresh accessions; and he followed it, in one form or other, during the whole of his residence in Liverpool. His colleague resigning in 1835, he became the minister, on the full salary—even then, however, only £400 a year. His energy enabled him to add to all the above admirably discharged duties a good deal of reviewing, first for the Monthly Repository, and afterwards for the London Review, the Westminster, the Prospective, the National, the Contemporary, and others.

The first incident that called him prominently before the general religious public of his town was the challenge of thirteen clergymen of the Church of England, which he and his friend Mr. Thom, with the minister of the ancient chapel at Toxteth Park, accepted. full account of this controversy-into the particulars of which our space does not permit us to enter—is given in the Theological Review for January, 1877. During the whole of his life, he has made the religious instruction of the young a most serious part of his ministerial duties, carrying his classes through complete courses of Biblical criticism and exegetical theology, on one occasion giving a nine months' course of weekly evening lectures on the history of the Eucharist, its inner doctrines and its outer forms, conducting at the end a self-dedication service (of the nature of a confirmation) prior to the next communion. In the earlier part of his residence in Liverpool his teaching had been but a development—earnest, however, and individual—of the philosophical and theological principles in which he had been educated. But some of these gave way before freer and fuller thought, and an intenser insight. The doctrine of necessity, which he was in the habit of pushing, with logical fervour, to its extreme issues, betrayed its insufficiency to his mind by this very process, and he began to see that in causation there was something behind the phenomenal sequence traced by inductive observation; and the scheme which he had taken as a universal formula did not, he found, sufficiently provide for the conscience of man or the moral government of God. And this discovery, as it were, of the metaphysical realm which lay beyond the physical, involved not only a new philosophical scheme, but a new attitude of mind towards the early Christian modes of thought—a change first directly indicated to the public in his "Rationale of Religious Inquiry" (the first edition of which appeared in 1836) but followed up with greater maturity and fullness in various publications since. In 1840, another sphere of influence was opened to him, and another tax was laid on his inexhaustible energies, by his appointment to the professorship of Mental and Moral Philosophy and Political Economy in Manchester New College. This involved a reconsideration of his whole philosophical system, as well as a direct preparation of new lectures adapted to the class of advanced professional students who would attend them. He had to think out anew the problems of which he had to treat, finding, probably to his dismay, that everything he had written previously had become unsatisfactory. Courses of lectures elaborately prepared for repeated use were laid upon the shelf for ever; the familiar text-books could no longer be used, and many subjects had to be melted down again and recast in other moulds. Besides all this, he had to go over to Manchester to deliver these lectures two days every week (as subsequently to London once a week), excepting during the occasional recesses and the regular three months' vacation. But he had his reward in all this toil and disappointment. He made an escape from a logical eave into the open air. He breathed more freely; his horizon was enlarged, and he could use the language of the heart and the conscience without any subauditur which neutralised its sense.

The rapid growth of Liverpool, removing the residences of its inhabitants farther and farther from the Exchange, had long rendered Paradise Street Chapel inconvenient to its congregation, who accordingly determined to build a new church in Hope Street. The foundation-stone was laid on May 9th, 1848. In the body of English Presbyterians, among whom he was born and bred, he was both ecclesiastically and theologically free. This position he prized as among his choicest inheritances, and never would consent to yield it. He has always declared that he did not belong, and would not belong, to any Church or sect that was understood to pledge itself to the reception of any fixed dogmas or any immutable opinion. In his address, therefore, in laying the foundation-stone, he says:-"I am a Unitarian . . . but the society of worshippers, of which we are only the living members, and the church erected here, of which we shall be but transient tenants—these are not to be defined as Unitarian." Mr. Martineau took the opportunity of the building of the new church (on which, with the school subsequently added, was expended upwards of £20,000) to take a much-needed vacation for rest and independent study, by spending fifteen months in Germany. He went in July, 1848, with his family, first to Dresden, and thence, late in October, to Berlin. He elosely attended Trendelenburg's two courses of logic and the history of philosophy, writing out his notes, with all the citations, in the evenings. Beyond the references which these lectures included, we believe he read on these subjects little but Plato and Hegel. His difficulties in mastering the meanings of Hegel were little aided either by the logic of Gabler, or the rhetoric of Michelet. But he found it a great advantage to consult his writings in the order of their production, and also to follow his method in its application to history; and the combined and contemporaneous study of the ancient Greek and modern German modes of thought threw much reciprocal light upon each. The interruptions of study from domestic illness, and the political unrest of that year (1848), were so great as to make him unwilling to encounter any others. Fortunately, the charms of the "Bavarian Alps," and a six weeks' residence in the secularised monastery of St. Zeuo, a sail in a private boat down the Danube, a stay at Vienna, besides the galleries of Dresden in the earlier part of his stay, were enjoyed, notwithstanding the severe claims of study, and the agitated condition of society, and military occupation. He also had friendly intercourse with Krause, Sydow, Passow, Pertz, Trendelenburg, the Zumpts, the Von Rankes, and others.

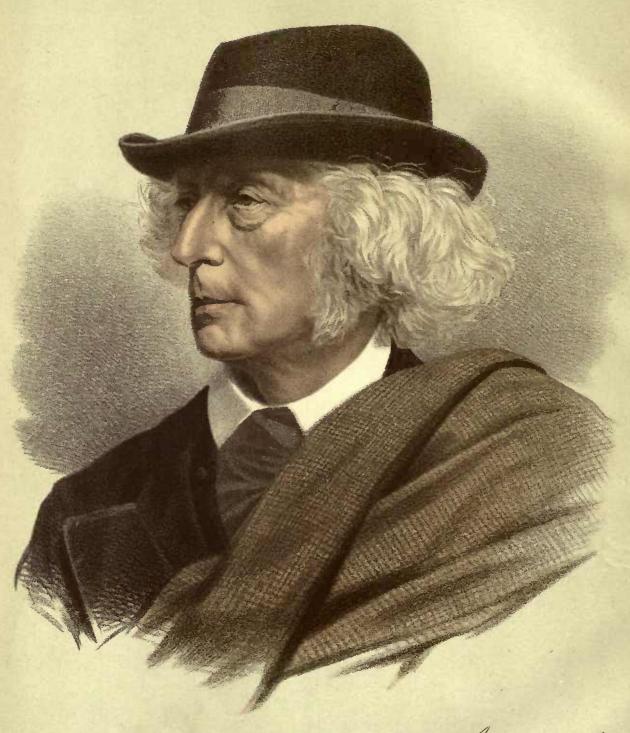
On his return to Liverpool, to the opening of the new church (in October, 1849), among the welcoming friends that through around himself and his family one was wanting—whose greeting would have been the first and the tenderest, and to whom he makes a son's affectionate allusion in his first sermon. His mother had died in his absence, almost her last considerable act having been one of the most delicate and fastidious honour, involving resolute and protracted self-denial, and touchingly expressive of her depth of affection and supreme sense of right.

For eight years Mr. Martineau preached and lectured in the new church, under conditions little varied from those of former years, unless it were that he paid still more assiduous attention to the instruction of the younger members of his congregation. The later years of his college engagement at Manchester were, however, deprived of the charm which had rendered the earlier ones memorable to him, in the removal of Francis William Newman to University

such a book unreviewed. Dr. Martineau, in association with his friends and co-editors, the Rev. John James Tayler, the Rev. John Hamilton Thom, and the Rev. Charles Wicksteed—who unitedly conducted the Review for nine or ten years—had, in the division of labour, as a rule, this class of subjects specially assigned to him; and his pre-eminent fitness for his usual duty in the present instance could not be concealed from the editors. He accordingly undertook this trying task (see Prospective Review, No. XXVI., art., "Mesmeric Atheism"). He treated his sister—as might have been expected—with a tender, if regretful, respect. But Mr. Atkinson he certainly did not spare. The review, however, handling, as she thought, with unjust severity the arguments and the capability of a friend to whom she was very greatly attached, and not treating mesmerism with adequate respect, raised in her the greatest displeasure—a displeasure (aggravated, no doubt, by her own physical suffering) which no explanations and no kind approaches on her brother's part could ever mitigate or remove. The numerous misrepresentations which have gone forth on this and many other points of family and public interest, have been treated by Dr. Martineau himself with a dignified silence, which will probably never be broken by him during his life, and which, so far as he himself is concerned, it is nnnecessary to break.

The long-lagging honours which the British universities—by a limitation of acknowledgment not wholly creditable to national institutions—still abstained from conferring, were at length offered to him in the degree of LL.D., from Harvard (U.S.) University, in 1872, and in that of T.D. (Theologia Doctor) from Leyden, on the occasion of the celebration of its tercentenary, in 1875. Dr. Martineau's life having been so largely devoted to the duties of public and private instruction, he has never yet had the leisure to undertake a long or continuous work; but the materials for one, and perhaps more than one, such exist in his published Miscellanies and Sermons, and still more, probably, in yet unpublished lectures. He has always been disposed, as a busy student, to protect his time from the intrusive demands of mere general society; but his door, his time, and his sympathy, have always been most generously open to all who had any special claim upon him, were it only the claim of those who needed guidance and help in the problems of their mental and spiritual life, or the sympathy of his friendship.





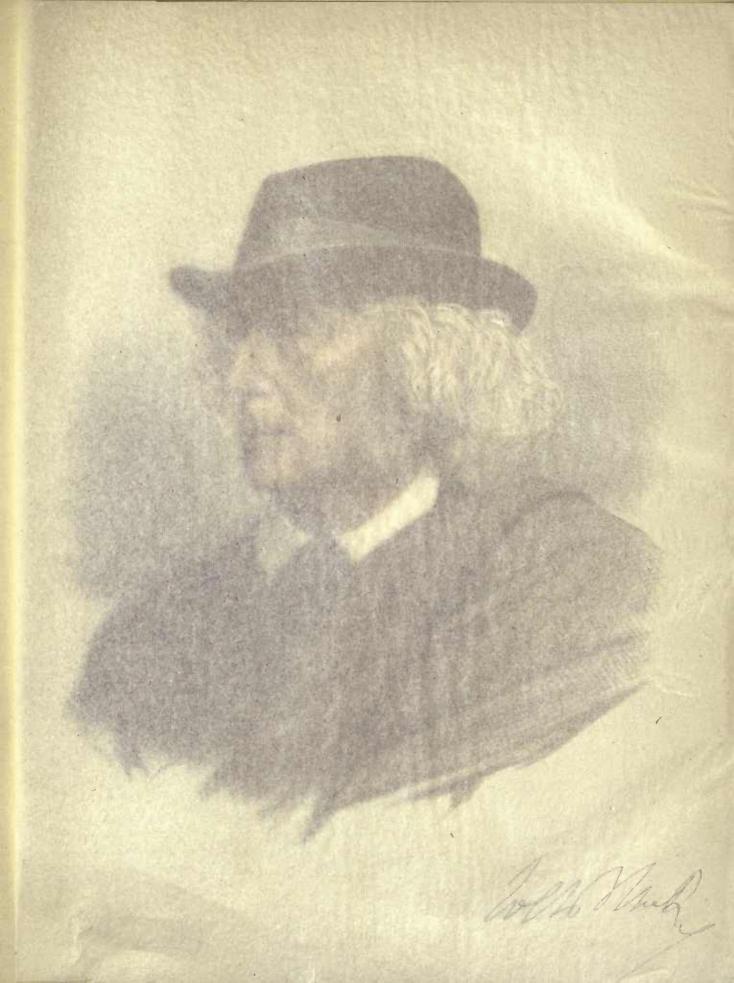
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PROFESSOR JOHN STUART BLACKIE.

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Property for the second of the second of the second of July, 1800. Before he had completed his this could be a second to Atomicon, and in that city the future constance reasons who are a superior and education, at a private school. After completing his rate that the season of the season of Marinebal College, where he attended for three come relaxionation professor according of Educatorists. Very early in life Professor Blackie and a safe improper at the decision of returned and moral treth; he affended the Divinity There is Aberdeen, making the transaction what was known as an able divine, and Principal Brown, gover a declarship was at me or linear cases for Scotland at that period. The young student said and early digest of the three Emphasis, without note or comment, and fell thereby into . wasters received. The first of these way be distinguished as a mild form of what is generally called Arctimanism: from this he was d into various stages of latitudinarianism, as may be gathered from his "Songs of Religion and Life," published in 1876. This volume contains many passes breathing a spirit of extends Christian plety, while there is yet regulational threspesses the work an attitude of quiet protest against the rigid Calcinistic orthodoxy of his energy. Those who imagine from his warn't expressed armeathy with the Commissions, and from his poems in their penden that he is referred with the ingrowmindedness and bigotry too frequently associated with foregoined mirror in Scotland, certainly arrive at a most erroneous conclusion. As a telegram one, Professor Darkin schitche a true spirit of the widest tolerance towards these bolding other species and degrees. In the epint of



PROFESSOR JOHN STUART BLACKIE.

FEW university professors have either developed the versatility of talent or acquired the personal popularity of John Stuart Blackie. In addition to possessing the highest qualifications for the professorship, he exhibits a natural bonhomic of character which gives him a high place in the esteem and affection of all the students with whom he comes in contact. The apophthegm, mens sana in corpore sano, may, with advantage, be applied to him, for Professor Blackie combines, with a singularly keen and intuitive class of mind, a stalwart and vigorous body. Like that of the sometime occupant of the chair of Moral Philosophy in Edinburgh University, "Christopher North," his figure, when once seen, is not likely to be forgotten. Mr. Blackie is the professor par excellence; he manifests an enthusiasm for the Greek language and literature, of which he is the exponent in the University, rarely equalled. Add to this that he has a grasp of mind which nothing cludes, that he takes an interest in all public questions, that almost unaided he has been successful in establishing the new chair of Celtic in that University of which he is so distinguished an ornament, and we have advanced quite sufficient to entitle him to the regard of all admirers of genius, as well as of those who follow with solicitude the educational progress of the country.

Professor Blackie was born at Glasgow on the 28th of July, 1809. Before he had completed his third year his father, who was a banker, removed to Aberdeen, and in that city the future professor received his earliest training and education, at a private school. After completing his twelfth year he was entered as a student of Marischal College, where he attended for three years, subsequently going to the University of Edinburgh. Very early in life Professor Blackie was seriously impressed with the importance of religious and moral truth; he attended the Divinity Hall at Aberdeen, under Dr. Mearns, who was known as an able divine, and Principal Brown, whose scholarship was of no ordinary range for Scotland at that period. The young student made an early digest of the Greek Scriptures, without note or comment, and fell thereby into various heresies. The first of these may be distinguished as a mild form of what is generally called Arminianism: from this he passed into various stages of latitudinarianism, as may be gathered from his "Songs of Religion and Life," published in 1876. This volume contains many poems breathing a spirit of catholic Christian piety, while there is yet maintained throughout the work an attitude of quiet protest against the rigid Calvinistic orthodoxy Those who imagine from his warmly expressed sympathy with the of his country. Covenanters, and from his poems in their praise, that he is infected with the narrowmindedness and bigotry too frequently associated with Evangelical religion in Scotland, certainly arrive at a most erroneous conclusion. As a religious man, Professor Blackie exhibits a true spirit of the widest tolerance towards those holding other creeds and dogmas. In the spirit of

an eclectic, and one possessing a warm and enthusiastic nature, alive to the excellence of virtue in others, he selects for admiration that which is worthy of the sentiment, wherever it is to be found.

In the year 1829 Mr. Blackie went abroad, and at Göttingen and Berlin, where he pursued his studies, first made thorough acquaintance with that German language in which he is so great a proficient. He also visited Italy, whose language and literature he studied, devoting himself at the same time to the science of archaelogy. His first scholarly performance was an exposition of an ancient Roman sarcophagus, written in Italian, and published in the "Annals of the Society for Archaelogical Correspondence, Rome," of which society the future professor was elected a corresponding member. Returning to Scotland, he commenced the study of the law, and was called to the bar in 1834. As in the case of many other literary men, he discovered that the bar was an uncongenial profession, and he accordingly began to write reviews. At this period, also, he published a translation of "Faust" which will favourably compare with any other English rendering of Goethe's immortal work. In 1841 he was appointed Professor of Humanity in Marischal College, Aberdeen, which post he occupied for eleven years. 1850 appeared his translation of "Æschylus," dedicated to the Chevalier Bunsen and Edward Gerhard, whom he describes as "the friends of his youth and the directors of his early studies." Professor Blackie is known to be one of the ablest Greek scholars in Britain, and his acquaintance with Greek literature is at the same time both varied and profound.

In addition to his Greek and German acquirements, Professor Blackie early developed a taste for Latin composition, in which he practised himself largely. He also subsequently wrote Latin verse with considerable facility, as may be gathered from his "Lyrical Poems," published in 1860, many of which are in Latin. Greek he afterwards handled in the same way, in his Greek and English dialogues in the easy, playful manner of Lucian, an author of whom Professor Blackie has always been a warm admirer, expounding his wit and humour to a select class in the University of Edinburgh with manifest gusto. The "Lyrical Poems" further demonstrate that he has a thorough command of German for the purposes of original composition, He was elected to the chair of Greek at Edinburgh in the year 1852, and this chair he has held ever since. In 1853 he travelled in Greece, residing in Athens for some time, until he had acquired a fluent use of the living Greek language. Professor Blackie entertains strong views upon the question of the pronunciation of Greek. He holds to the modern Greek pronunciation, with certain modifications, and protests warmly against the English method of pronouncing Greek with Latin accentuation as a barbarous figment. He maintains that it has no foundation either in science or philological tradition. He has further observed upon this subject that "the English don't know how to pronounce Greek. When Mr. Gladstone went to Greece a few years ago, not a word could the Greeks understand when he spoke to them; therefore he was obliged to address them at Corfu in Italian. I went to Greece, and they understood every word I said." In a letter to the Times on the 9th of August, 1877, Professor Blackie also remarked—"I never yet found an English scholar who could answer me the simple question—Why do you pronounce Latin with Latin accents received by tradition from the Latinists of the Roman Church, while you refuse to pronounce Greek according to the combined traditions of the Greek Church, the Greek people, and the Alexandrian and Byzantine grammarians?" The Professor further states his entire accordance with Mrs. Schliemann that it would be well in all cases that Greek were taught as a living and not as a dead language, and adds-"The saving of time which this would effect is a most important consideration; and I offer myself, as a practical man,

to prove publicly before any assembly of scholars in Oxford or Cambridge, how this could be done easily, even on English ground, without the slightest prejudice to that minute accuracy and refined classical tone of which English Hellenism has always been proud to make her boast."

Although Professor Blackie went through a five years' course of close study in the Aberdeen and Edinburgh Universities, it is somewhat singular that he has never been heard to say anything respecting the influence, if any, which was exercised over him by any of his teachers. Had he sat under teachers of the type of Dr. Arnold of Rugby, such influence would have been apparent; but the genial brilliancy of Professor Wilson was too far removed from the grave moral seriousness of the young student-then devoted to theology-to find any entrance into the inner sanctuary of his cogitations at the age of seventeen. As regards scholarship, the Greek and Latin of his day in Marischal College, Aberdeen, were so elementary, that from the exalted German platform to which he subsequently became elevated, the Professor could only look down upon them. We know how St. Paul, when he had passed on to higher Christian attainments, looked back on "the beggarly elements of Judaism:" some such feeling with regard to the current studies in Latin and Greek possessed Professor Blackie, when he had once discovered his opportunity for leaving the defective scholarship behind. Yet the Latin of Aberdeen at that time was traditionally good, and far above the general Scottish level; but what the Professor always felt was that it wanted soul. He protested most emphatically, and does still occasionally protest, against the idolatry of the mere grammatical element in the elegant but barren Latinity of the North. Of the general state and progress of philological science in Europe, Professor Blackie never received a hint from any of his professors; and he has often been heard to say that he heard the word Sanserit first, not from any of the Aberdeen professors, but from the Rev. W. Anderson, late minister of the parish of Banchory Ternan, on Dee Side, about eighteen miles from Aberdeen. Mr. Anderson was afterwards Professor of English in one of the Indian Colleges. The Professor has also frequently stated that he acquired more real knowledge of European scholarship during his intercourse with the Chevalier Bunsen, in Rome and Germany, than he did from all his teachers put together.

After these personal experiences of tuition, it was naturally to be expected that in his own position as Professor of Greek at Edinburgh Mr. Blackie would scarcely tread the beaten path. He cherishes larger and broader views of the responsibilities of his office than to be satisfied with the perfunctory system which prevailed in his own early years. As a teacher of languages, he has always emphasised two things:-First, that languages ought to be taught, not apart from, but along with, objects; and he believes that the contempt for the natural sciences often expressed by scholars is the product of pedantry, and prejudicial not only to the general education of youth, but to the higher scholarship. Secondly, the Professor holds that in the teaching of all languages, whether living or dead, the ear and the tongue ought to be trained in the first place, and the eye only in a secondary way; in other words, that the living teacher ought not to remit his function to dead books; and he considers generally that books occupy far too prominent a place in modern education. The Professor further maintains that to elect men for the public service, or to think of making them good citizens, by testing their cognitive faculties and intellectual acquisitions only, is a great mistake. Public opinion on this latter question is rapidly coming round to the point of view taken by Professor Blackie; and there can be no doubt that, if the plans of education just indicated obtained a wider suffrage, we should witness as the result a solidity in the education of youth which is now lamentably wanting. The education of the present

day partakes too much of the nature of simple eramming. The student is regarded merely as a storehouse for facts; he knows little about broad and general principles; and in process of time, when his facts, slavishly acquired, are forgotten, there is nothing left to prove that he had a worthy education previous to setting out on his career in the world. The present system of education, in many of its details, and the present method of competitive examination, are probably destined to undergo a thorough sifting, with beneficial results to the next generation of students.

Professor Blackie has been a somewhat voluminous writer. The following is a list of his prineipal works :- After the translation of "Æschylus," already mentioned, appeared, in 1857, "Lays and Legends of Ancient Greece; with other Poems," and in 1860, the "Lyrical Poems," already referred to. In 1866 the Professor published his "Homer and the Iliad," in four large volumes, a translation of the "Iliad" being given in ballad measure. This work was followed by the publication of many lectures and discourses, including the discourse on "Democraey," which was the subject of much comment on its appearance. In 1869 was issued "Musa Burschicosa," a collection of songs for students and university men; and in 1870 a volume of "War Songs of the Germans," accompanied with historical sketches. Professor Blackie, who is impregnated with much of the German spirit, defended the cause of Germany against France in the late war. In 1872 "Lays of the Highlands and Islands" appeared; and this work was followed by a prose volume, entitled "Selfeulture." This latter work was republished in the United States; and so great has been its popularity in this country that it is now in a tenth edition. Moral philosophy has occupied a large share of Professor Blackie's attention, and his general conclusions thereupon were published in the "Four Phases of Morals." The Professor is a strong opponent of the philosophy of Mr. John Stuart Mill, and he has also attacked Mr. Grote, the historian, for his views on the Greek Sophists, and Professor Max Müller for his allegorical interpretation of ancient myths. A number of Professor Blackie's philological papers were collected and published, in the year 1874, under the title of "Horse Hellenieæ." He dealt with the Rev. Dr. Alison's philosophy of taste in a work "On Beauty," published in 1858. The Professor published another volume of poems in 1876, to which some reference has already been made, and entitled "Songs of Religion and Life." In the same year also he issued "The Language and Literature of the Highlands." His latest work (1877) is "The Wise Men of Greece." This volume consists of a series of dramatic dialogues, which are entitled as follows: -- "Pythagoras," "Xenophanes," "Thales," "Heraclitus," "Empedoeles," "Anaxagoras," "Aristodemus," "The Death of Socrates," "Aristippus," and "Plato." has been remarked of this work that its intention and raison d'être are "to bring out clearly and prominently in their leading points the philosophy, including the theology, morals, &c., and the seience of the wise men of ancient Greece, proving that much of what is looked upon as startling and new in the philosophy and science of the present day, including even Darwinism, so called, is not new, but very old—as old, at least, as the date of the wise men with whom we are confronted in these dialogues—say some 2,500 years ago." The poetical value of this work, apart from its learning, is very high. For ease of expression and rich musical versification, we may eite as an excellent example "The Chorus of Maidens," on the birth of Aphrodite, or Venus, which will be found in the division "Thales." The melody of this chorus reminds us of Mr. Swinburne, of whom, indeed, it is not unworthy. The Professor's reputation as a poet is more than sustained by the publication of this volume. The Professor's volume on "The Language and Literature of the Scottish Highlands" is a substantial attempt at rendering a necessary service to literature. As the author has himself described it, it is an endeavour to break down the middle wall of partition which fences off the most cultivated minds in England and in the Lowlands of

Scotland from the intellectual life and moral aspirations of the Scottish Highlanders. Certainly the inhabitants of the south have no adequate conception of the literary treasure which exists in the Scottish Highlands. Professor Blackie, therefore, deserves the acknowledgments not only of his own countrymen, but of all English lovers of literature, for his efforts in demonstrating what the Caledonian branch of the great Celtic family of languages is able to achieve. Those whose acquaintance with literature is confined to our few great classic writers, or, it may be, to the last new novel, would be astonished to discover how much Celtie genius has hitherto gone almost unrecognised-or did, at least, until the appearance of this volume. The author discusses the language of the Highlands at the outset, and then pilots us through its pre-Christian and mediæval manifestations, giving sketches of the bardie, or minstrel, development of literature; the succession of Celtic poets, who flourished between the end of the sixteenth and the end of the eighteenth century; the remarkable epiphany of the Celtie Muse on the great European stage, under the auspices of James Maepherson, in the year 1762; and, lastly, the condition of Celtic literature in the Highlands from the subsidence of the great Ossianic excitement produced by Maepherson down to the present hour. There is an unquestionably strong imaginative spirit in the most recent examples of Gaelic literature, as there was confessedly in the ancient; and that portion of the work devoted to the examination of the modern Gaelic period will be found not the least interesting. In the first chapter of his treatise, Professor Blackie gives a curious and entertaining account of how he first came to study the treasures of the native Gaelic Like others of his countrymen, he had been brought up under the old traditions of the classical schoolmasters. "Our native Scottish music and lyric poetry, second to none in literary history, was never once mentioned as a subject worthy of scholastic recognition—both these things, as nothing conducive to a man's advancement in the world, were left to the vulgar influences of the street and of the fireside. Gaelie, of course, though existing quite in a vivid state a few miles up the country, in the estimation of those nice quoters of Horace and Virgil, was a barbarism as little imagined as the Umbrian and Oscan dialects might be to a polished literary gentleman of the Augustan age in Rome. Well, I grew up in ignerance and apathy, like other young men who had received the benefits of a classical education, and made the usual tour through the Highland glens, from Ballater to Blair-Athol and Loch Tay, without taking note that there was any such language as Gaelie in the world. Some ten or fifteen years ago, however, having arrived at man's estate, and learnt better how to use my eyes and ears, upon one of my frequent vagabond flights through the Highland hills I took up my quarters for some weeks at Kinloch-Ewe, and then and there I picked up my first mustard-seed of the rare old language." For the knowledge as to the manner in which this "mustard-seed" was subsequently developed, we must refer the reader to the work itself, premising that the Professor's experience, though differing in kind, is as interesting as that narrated by Elihu Burritt respecting that "learned blacksmith's" own acquisition of languages. In the course of an article on Professor Blackie's claims upon society as a literary man, a writer in one of the monthly serials not long ago observed :- "Professor Blackie has been known so long for his excellent translations and his scholarly abilities, that it will be unnecessary to say much here. If additional proof were needed that there is more in the teaching of the classics than mere 'gerund-grinding,' we have it in this most amiable of Scotch professors. It would be a treat of no ordinary kind to hear him dilate upon Aristophanes. There are points, too, in Homer which no one has seized upon so sharply and effectively as he. We should like to hear him talk off-hand about Thersites. Yet the wonder is that Professor Blackic should have spent so much of his time in translations—not in the class, but in his studyas literary work, considering his undeniable claims as a writer of original poetry. There is no member of a Scotch senatus so well and favourably known as Professor Blackie, chiefly because ne has so little of the orthodox school-man about him."

The large liberality of sentiment which distinguishes Professor Blackie in all matters affecting the people, finds an exemplification in the preface to his work entitled "Lays of the Highlands and Islands." Through the medium of "A Talk with the Tourists," he gives us his views upon a question which a few years ago agitated the whole of Scotland: viz., the compulsory evacuation of certain Highland districts by the inhabitants. He reminds us that, as in gardening, so in rural economy, weeding is one thing, and extirpation is another. The clearance question is of course a difficult one to handle. Each instance of eviction must be judged upon its own merits; and local knowledge is absolutely essential to a due understanding of the merits of the case. Professor Blackie is certainly the last man to be accused of revolutionary tendencies; yet he at the same time never shrinks from giving "the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth," as it strikes him in all matters affecting the well-being of society. On this question of landlord and tenant—a most important one as affecting Scotland—he thus expresses himself:— "The first duty of a landed aristocracy, not only by British tradition, but by the inflexible rules of a wise agrarian policy, is to protect and cherish the local population, the stout and healthy peasantry, who are the seminary of the state; and whoever neglects this duty, and holds land for the mere purpose of collecting as much rent as possible in the easiest possible way, is a bad landlord and a worthless citizen." He maintains that the peasantry of a country have a special right to demand a kindly protection from the Government, and a paternal treatment from the landholder.

As an original poet, Professor Blackie must be awarded an honourable place; yet it might have been still higher, if his energies had not so frequently been employed in other directions. His songs possess great sweetness, and higher qualities are to be found in such poems as "The Voyage of Columba," "The Death of Columba," and "The Highlander's Lament." A spirit of true reverence for God and for that Nature which is His workmanship, breathes through all his writings. It is refreshing in these days of intellectual scepticism, and scepticism in which there is little trace of any intellect, to turn to an author who holds a robust and manly belief in the verities of the Christian religion. Being of a strong and healthful spirit, he also sees in the world hope and happiness, where less jubilant writers—who lose sight of the Creator and the thousand natural beauties He flings in our path—see only doubt, confusion, and despair. How sweetly our poet sings in his delightful lyric, "Beautiful World," one of whose stanzas thus runs:—

"Beautiful world!
Though bigots condemn thee,
My tengue finds no words
For the graces that gem thee!
Beaming with sunny light,
Bountiful ever,
Streaming with gay delight
Full as a river.
Bright world! brave world'
Let cavillers blame thee
I bless thee, and bend
To the God who did frame thee!"

Professor Blackie's poems cannot but have the effect he designed for them, as expressed in the prefatory note to his "Songs of Religion and Life." He there states that all his poems have a common object, viz., "the cultivation of religious reverence without sectarian dogmatism, and of poetical sentiment tending not so much to amuse the imagination or to tickle the fancy, as to purify the passions and regulate the conduct of life." The distinguishing qualities of his poetry are tenderness, sweetness, case and grace of expression, and an unswerving faith in the Unseen. Of his many volumes, there is not a line he need wish to blot out, while there is much displaying a high elevation of sentiment and spirit.

Upon political questions it has been the lot of Professor Blackie to be seriously misunderstood. He has on several occasions been represented as a Conservative. This, however, is a complete mistake—a mistake which probably owes its origin to the fact that some years ago the Professor defended the principles of the British constitution in opposition to those who set up America as the standard of political excellence. On this subject Professor Blackie held a public disputation with Mr. Ernest Jones, the well-known Radical. This controversy excited a great deal of public attention at the time, and resulted in the publication subsequently of the discourse on "Democracy." The Professor, in his argument with Mr. Jones, assumed the position of the superiority of a mixed form of government in comparison with the over-trumpeted virtues of American democracy. Professor Blackie has invariably voted with the Liberal party, with one exception only. On this oceasion, having two votes to give, he gave one vote for the Liberal candidate and one for the Conservative, on the ground that it was only plain justice that the upper classes of Edinburgh should be represented in Parliament, as well as the middle and lower. By nature and temperament Professor Blackie is a Liberal in the broadest sense of the term, and not the merely political. As the assertor of individual freedom and personal independence, he could not possibly be an aristograt, or become the defender of oligarchical institutions. He rebels instinctively against the privileges of the few, whenever those privileges eneroach on the natural rights of the many. On the other hand, he is imbued with a keen sense of justice; and this quality would induce him to come forward as the champion of all minorities, whenever they might be over-ridden, as they sometimes are, by the insolence of majorities. For this reason it is that the Professor looks upon extreme democracy as not one whit better than an extreme manifestation of the oligarchical principle. In this, we may remind the reader, he agrees with Aristotle, who (after St. Paul) is the constant companion and Mentor of Professor Blackie. The distinctive ethical maxim of Aristotle, that all extremes are wrong, the Professor holds to be the most valuable rule ever put forth for the practical conduct of life. And to this standard the Professor himself endeavours to conform, notwithstanding the adverse contention of his opponents, who lose sight of his arguments in his enthusiasm. In controversy he undoubtedly uses strong phrases, but it will be seen upon examination that his practice, with his theory, generally supports a middle course. Viewed in this light, Professor Blackie's opinions upon polities will be readily understood. He is a conservator of all that is best in the British constitution. He would not oppose changes for the mere sake of opposition, but he demands, before assenting to a radical revision of the existing constitution, that we should have some tangible proof of the satisfactory working of democratic institutions. Such proof, he maintains, is not forthcoming; hence he is a defender of that which exists, and is to a large extent sound in principle, and the opponent of all innovations which would strike at the root of the greatness and stability of the British Empire.

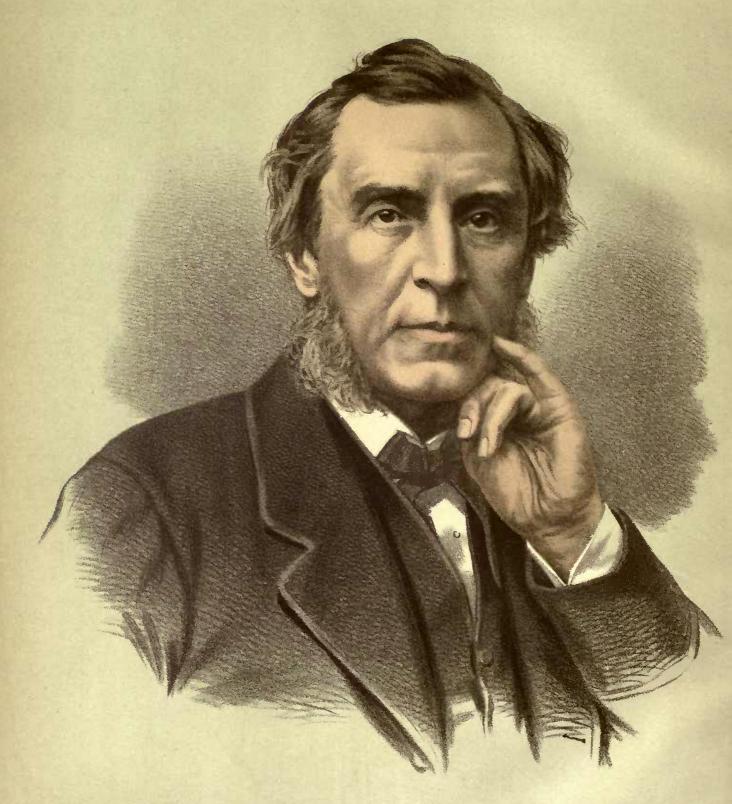
The Professor's activity as a popular lecturer in this lecturing age deserves special mention.

He went into that movement at a time when it was not so fashionable as now-when, indeed, it was rather considered to be a cheapening of a man's value in the world of letters. But the Professor held that it is the duty as well as the privilege of those whose mission is knowledge, to scatter truth with a free hand as widely as possible. His manner of lecturing is worth noticing, in the way of advice to all public speakers. He speaks off-hand, and without paper, in the most free and unencumbered way. But this does not imply any want of careful preparation; on the contrary, we have often heard him say that he commenced lecturing in the usual way, with a manuscript fully written out, but gave up that practice for two reasons: First, because he observed that the direct address, without the intervention of paper, was more effective in exciting attention, more stimulant, and in every way more natural; second, because the time occupied with the mechanical art of composing sentences is so much abstracted from careful study and severe preparation. And this severe preparation, according to the Professor's habit, consists in a thorough thinking out of the subject, a large collection of facts, a careful comparison of opposing views, and a well-ordered blocking out of the heads of discourse. Fluency of expression is a dexterity acquired by practice, and will be found, if a man has only in the first place something to say; or, as the Professor is accustomed to phrase it, plenty of "bones" in his talk. Though not aspiring to high flights of eloquence, the Professor succeeds in the main object of all speaking: he makes people attend; and is himself generally as fresh at the end of a long address as when he commenced. There are few districts in Scotland where his voice has not been heard; and he seems equally at his ease, whether addressing an assembly of the learned and scientific in Albemarle Street, or a company of Highland lads and lasses in Oban or Tobermory.

One word remains to be said of the subject of this notice personally, in addition to the observations made in the outset. In private life, wherever he is known, he is beloved; the frank generosity of his disposition, and his extreme disinterestedness, make him the favourite of all with whom he comes into personal relations. He is the very antithesis of "Dr. Dryasdust," and admirably represents the perfervidum ingenium Scotorum. Versed in Greek, Latin, German, and other lore; the beau idéal of a teacher or instructor; the possessor of a fund of rich and sparkling humour; a genial and faithful friend and companion—there is no wonder that, as the result of these and other estimable qualities, Professor Blackie enjoys a popularity co-extensive with the length and breadth of Seotland.

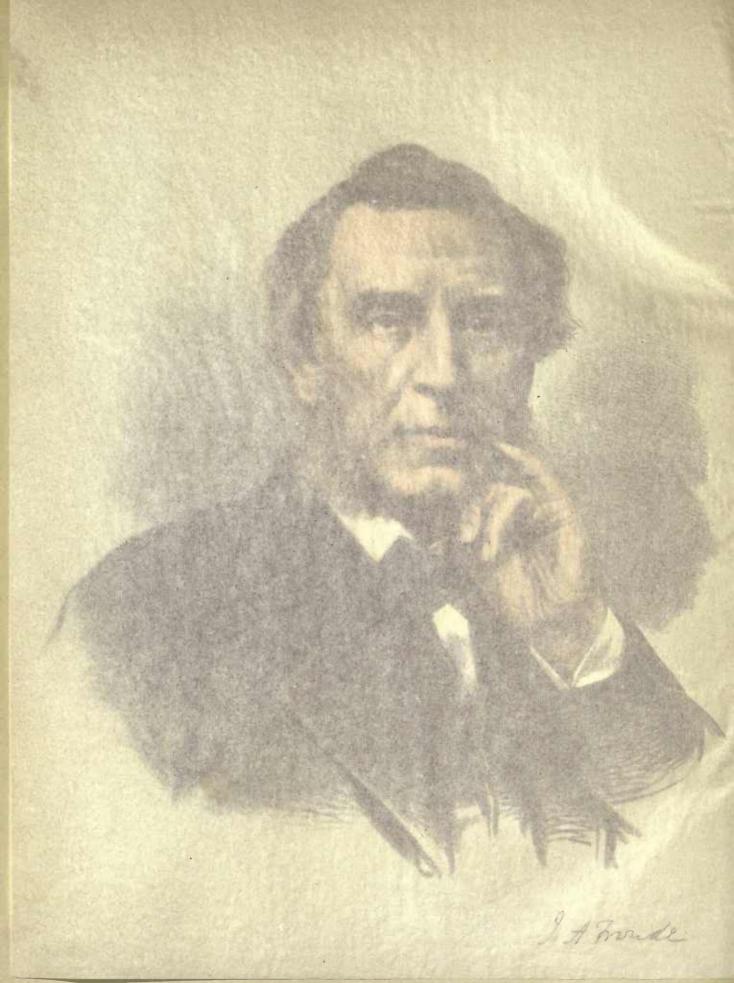
Professor Blackie married, in 1842, Elizabeth, daughter of James Wyld, Esq., of Gilston, Fife.





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JAMES ANTHONY FROUDE.

HISTORY is at the same time one of the most important and one of the most fascinating of studies. He can scarcely be accounted a worthy citizen or patriot who cares little for the progress of his own country. Of history generally, Mr. Carlyle reminds us that "in essence and significance, it has been called 'The true epic poem, and universal Divine Scripture, whose plenary inspiration no man, out of Bedlam or in it, shall bring in question.'" And if history generally be so important, how great is its significance as regards our own country! In England, individual freedom and liberty are so interwoven with popular and Parliamentary struggles, as to render the history of the nation doubly attractive to the student. By its aid we are enabled to trace the gradual steps through which this kingdom has passed to its present position; to note how in her annals

"Freedom broadens slowly down From procedent to precedent,"

till now our highly-favoured land occupies the foremost place amongst civilised nations. With such a history, can there be room for wonder that England boasts a long and brilliant line of historians—men who have fed the patriotism of one age by recounting the glorious deeds of its predecessors? The age of Queen Victoria alone has had its Grote, its Hallam, Thirlwall, Alison, Buckle, Lingard, Turner, Palgrave, Macaulay, Carlyle, and others—not the least conspicuous amongst whom is the writer who forms the subject of the present notice.

Mr. Froude is the son of the Rev. R. H. Froude, formerly Archdeacon of Totnes, and Rector of Dartington, Devonshire. He was born at Dartington, on the 23rd of April, 1818, and was educated at Westminster School and at Oriel College, Oxford. He graduated in classical honours at the University, and obtained the Chaucellor's Prize for the English Essay, the subject being Political Economy. He was elected Fellow of Exeter College in the year 1842. At this period there were many eminent men connected with what is known as the High Church party, and Mr. Froude's views threw him into sympathy and contact with (amongst others) the Rev. Dr. Newman. Mr. Froude contributed to "The Lives of the English Saints," and in 1844 he took deacon's orders, having originally been intended for the Church. Circumstances occurred, however, whichwhile the cause of much anxiety and solicitude in the outset to Mr. Froude-had the fortunate result of driving him into the paths of literature. In 1847, he published, under the nom de plume of "Zeta," a work entitled, "The Shadows of the Clouds." This was succeeded in 1849 by "The Nemesis of Faith." The latter work is a protest-such it has been described -against the reverence entertained by the Church for what the author called the Hebrew mythology. Both these works excited the displeasure of the University authorities, by whom, indeed, they were strongly condemned. As a result of their authorship, Mr. Froude was deprived of his fellowship, and he also forfeited a post to which he had been appointed in

Tasmania. A report gained currency that the character of Markham Sutherland in "The Nemesis of Faith" was none other than Mr. Froude himself. In the preface to the second edition, the author denied the autobiographical character of his work, while at the same time he took the opportunity of saying that he adhered to the opinions which he had expressed.

The freedom of Mr. Froude's opinions, and his boldness in expressing them, would naturally ereate much sensation at a time when little latitude was allowed to religious convictions, and the slightest deviations from orthodoxy were visited with severe denunciations. preface to which we have just referred, Mr. Froude observed that it was "the utter divorce between practice and profession which has made the entire life of modern England a frightful lie. The principles which are taught us in our churches may not approach us in our actions, and so we make a compromise, and are content to go on saying one thing and doing another. We shut out the Bible from our legislature, from our workshops, and our warehouses, but we pay it lip-service, and give it one day in the week to itself. Our duty to God is not now to fear Him, and to love Him, and to walk in His ways, but to hold certain opinions about Him, to maintain the truth of certain old histories about Him. We submit to be sermonised on Sundays, provided our sermons will not interfere with enlightened prudence and political economy on week-days. Nay, week after week we can see the 'Cures of Human Souls' advertised for sale in the columns of our religious newspapers, and no shame burns in our cheeks. surely if there be any impersonate Spirit of Evil, he may sit by with folded hands, contented to spare interference in a state of things which no help of his can improve." The time had not arrived when the presence of men holding unorthodox views could be considered compatible with the interests of the Church of England, and the result of Mr. Froude's "new departure" in theology, was that he came out of the Church. Amongst other distinguished men who at this time threw off holy orders was the poet Arthur Hugh Clough. Upon his secession Mr. Froude indulged the idea of emigration, but subsequently determined to remain in It is understood that he has since returned into communion with the Church, in which he regards himself as a layman, having never proceeded beyond his orders as a deacon.

The Church having ceased to be the object of the future with Mr. Froude, he now devoted himself to literature. From 1850 onwards, he wrote many articles in the Westminster Review and Fraser's Magazine. He also produced several pamphlets and short historical dissertations. The first volume of his "History of England" appeared in 1856. In 1865, he delivered an address before the Philosophical Institution of Edinburgh upon "The Influence of the Reformation on the Scottish Character." This address, which was greatly canvassed at the time, was remarkable for its eulogistic sketch of John Knox, who, it was averred, "saved the Kirk which he had founded, and saved with it Scottish and English freedom." Another address, which is amongst the finest efforts of Mr. Froude of this description, was that upon Calvinism, delivered to the University of St. Andrews, in 1869, on the occasion of his installation as Rector of the He drew the character of Calvin with a masterly hand, and his warm endorsement of the general spirit of the writings and life of the great Genevan, met with a sympathetic response on the part of his Scotch auditory. Mr. Froude is the author of three series of works, entitled "Short Studies on Great Subjects," which have been issued at various periods, the third series appearing in 1877.

The permanent fame of Mr. Froude, however, will unquestionably rest upon his "History of England from the Fall of Wolsey to the Death of Elizabeth." This work, commenced in the year 1856, occupied its author thirteen years, the last volume being published in 1869. It shows

the literary powers of Mr. Froude at the period of their ripest fulness, and its picturesqueness and dramatic power of relating events, have commanded the admiration of even those who are most hestile to Mr. Froude's political views. It was a task of no small daring to endeavour to place in a more favourable light than that in which it had hitherto been regarded the character of Henry VIII. Such, however, may be described as one of the chief features of Mr. Froude's history. By historians generally, Henry had previously been depicted largely as a man of brutal passions, with no capacity for statesmanship—unless that be statesmanship which is in reality an utter and selfish devotion to one's own views, and the determination to allow nothing to interfere with the gratification of the passions and the appetites. Mr. Froude addressed himself to the task of proving that Henry's character was not of so heinous a type as many historians have painted it, and that he displayed natural powers of the highest order at the highest stretch of industrious culture. The advocate for the defence, in whatsoever cause, may be pardoned any little access of warmth he displays in the justification of his client; and so with regard to Mr. Fronde and the burly English monarch: if not prepared to go the whole length of the historian's culogy, his readers cannot but admit that Mr. Fronde has shown him to be possessed of higher powers, and animated by a more enlightened and liberal spirit, than he has been generally credited with. Undoubtedly, as a ruler he was very popular, and this popularity was increased by the fact that his wars had been successful. He was English in his tastes, and he indulged, generally, true views of the relations which should subsist between a sovereign and his people. The following portrait of Henry VIII. by Mr. Froude, may be adduced as an evidence of the historian's skill in describing character :- "Nature had been predigal to him of her rarest gifts. In person he is said to have resembled his grandfather, Edward IV., who was the handsomest man in Europe. His form and bearing were princely, and amidst the easy freedom of his address his manner remained majestic. No knight in England could match him in the tournament, except the Duke of Suffolk; he drew with ease as strong a bow as was borne by any yeoman of his guard; and these powers were sustained in unfailing vigour by a temperate habit and by constant exercise. Of his intellectual ability we are not left to judge from the suspicious panegyries of his contemporaries. His State papers and letters may be placed beside those of Wolsey or of Cromwell, and they lose nothing in the comparison. Though they are broadly different, the perception is equally clear, the expression equally powerful, and they breathe throughout an irresistible vigour of purpose. In addition to this he had a fine musical taste, carefully cultivated; he spoke and wrote in four languages; and his knowledge of a multitude of other subjects, with which his versatile ability made him conversant, would have formed the reputation of any ordinary man. He was among the best physicians of his age; he was his own engineer, inventing improvements in artillery, and new constructions in ship-building; and this not with the condescending incapacity of a royal amateur, but with thorough workmanlike understanding. His reading was vast, especially in theology-which has been ridiculously ascribed by Lord Herbert to his father's intentions of educating him for the archbishopric of Canterbury, as if the scientific mastery of such a subject could have been acquired by a boy of twelve years of age, for he was no more when he became Prince of Wales. He must have studied theology with the full maturity of his understanding; and he had a fixed and perhaps unfortunate interest in the subject itself. In private he was good-humoured and good-natured." Such are some of the characteristics of Henry, as depicted by Mr. Froude; but it must not be supposed that the value of his "History" is exhausted in the vindication it offers of the character of this monarch. Mr. Froude gives a full and accurate description of the people and their condition under the

rule of Henry VIII., as may be seen by a perusal of his observations upon markets and wages, and other social topics. Of his capacity to write with graphic and dramatic power we may cite in proof the description of the death of Mary Queen of Scots-a piece of writing which would favourably compare with the pages of any other modern historian. Indeed, the brilliancy of his style has been a matter of such frequent comment, that we may be pardoned for not further enlarging upon the point here. Charged by his opponents with one-sidedness and prejudice in the drawing of his characters of Elizabeth and Mary, none will deny that his treatment of the period of the Reformation, as a whole, is masterly. The Quarterly Review, opposed to Mr. Froude's political views, speaking of his "History," said:—"It seems to us a grand opportunity misused; grand, because few authors have ever attained so brilliant a style as Mr. Froude, or shown more enterprise in searching for new information; while no period of English history can compare in romantic interest with that of Elizabeth." Whether Mr. Froude misused his opportunity is merely matter of opinion; and his admirers are, naturally, as warm in his defence as his detractors are in their attack. Certainly, the historian has been successful in causing the character of Elizabeth to stand out in a bold and new light, and there are thousands of Englishmen who echo to the full his warmest panegyries. The narrative of the period of the Reformation was eminently needed, and Mr. Froude's work will not only be permanent, but we may venture to predict that so far from his views being traversed and set at naught by posterity, they will rather be adopted and defended by future readers of his " History."

In the autumn of 1872 Mr. Fronde paid a visit to the United States. During his stay in that country he delivered a series of lectures on the relations between England and Ireland. Whatever views Mr. Froude may entertain upon a political question, he has invariably the courage of his convictions. The lectures in America formed no exception to the rule. The lecturer held strong opinions as to the amount of responsibility which attached to Irishmen themselves for the condition of their country. He affirmed in the course of his addresses that Irishmen had alone, to a large extent, caused the misery and degradation of their country by intestine jealousies and want of patriotism. As might have been expected, this charge roused the ire of the Irish population of New York. An animated controversy upon the lectures took place between the historian and Father Thomas Burke the Dominican orator. Into the details of that controversy we do not propose to enter. As in the case of polemical strife generally, the victory was claimed by the adherents of both parties to the discussion.

Mr. Froude's second historical work of importance is entitled "The English in Ireland in the Eighteenth Century." The first volume of this work was published in 1872, and the second and third—the concluding volumes—in 1874. This history was read with great eagerness upon its publication; but here again much controversy was excited. To avoid this, however, was impossible, seeing that Mr. Froude took strongly the English view of the question, and to some extent vindicated the English rule in Ireland. One of the leading critical reviews for July, 1874—a publication not usually in accord with Mr. Froude's political views—described his Irish History as a valuable contribution to contemporary politics, appearing at an opportune and critical moment. Its general spirit was dealt with in the following passage:—
"The Home Rule which is now demanded by Irish patriots of a certain stamp is an old cry under a new name, and Mr. Froude's book enables us to study it in its historical aspects. The present volumes (the second and third) are marked by all the qualities that gave interest and importance to the first—picturesque and vivid narrative, epigrammatic brilliancy, sympathetic analysis of Irish

character in its strength and weakness, and, above all, a passionate and earnest love of truth, and contempt for the glosses and hypocrisies which have hitherto varnished and disguised the story of Irish wrongs. If the work had no other merit—and it could not have a greater—it would be refreshing for its manly and uncompromising sineerity. The history of Ireland has so long been enveloped in mists of legend and clouds of fable, that it is something to get at last a clear and honest view of the actual facts. Those who think with Mr. Goldwin Smith that everything that has to be said about Ireland ought, as it were, to be coated with crystallised sugar, and wrapped up in satin and silver paper, will regard Mr. Froude's book as another outrage on a sensitive and sentimental nation. Those who think, as most reasonable people are now beginning to do, that the Irish have hitherto been too much flattered and too little respected, and that it is time they should be treated not like whimpering babies, with soft words and coaxing sops, but like grown men who know what they are about, and who are not to be thrown into hysterics by a little plain language, will be disposed to welcome Mr. Froude's candid and searching history as a hopeful symptom of the future." The historian has calmly dealt with the history of the Irish people, and he complains that Whig statesmen have never understood Ireland, and perhaps never will understand it. The gist of the arguments of the work is that the Home Rule so much clamoured for at various periods by Ireland, reason declares to be unattainable. The same literary graces and features which distinguished Mr. Fronde's greater "History" are present in his later work dealing with the government of Ireland in the eighteenth century.

Although Mr. Froude has never been a candidate for the parliamentary representation of any borough, he has always taken a great interest in practical polities. Though perhaps what would be designated as a Liberal, he is rather an eelectic in polities, condemning the errors of both political parties, and selecting the best features from both. In the third series of his "Short Studies," appeared a remarkable essay upon "Party Polities," written just after the General Election of 1874, when the country pronounced against Mr. Gladstone. The essayist observed, with regard to the reaction in favour of Conservatism, that, "Mr. Gladstone himself contributed the last and fatallest blow to his popularity by the suddenness of the dissolution, which, however he might explain it, resembled rather the conp of a Wall Street speculator than the broad and open display of policy and purpose which Englishmen demand of Ministers in whom they are to place confidence." Notwithstanding Mr. Froude's condemnation of this episode in the great Liberal statesman's career, he is, however, on all large questions, in harmony with Mr. Gladstone's views. But he is utterly opposed to what has been described as the "Americanising" of our English institutions. The following is the gist of his warnings to those politicians who believe that they are able to bring about a political and social millennium:-"All of us being on the same moral level, all have equal rights; all will obtain an equal share in political power; and, in a little while, distinctions of wealth being the most odious of all distinctions, the great estates will follow with the rest. The Democratic majority will then be supreme. There will be but one political party, who will carry out the dissolving programme till the State is reduced finally to the congregation of self-seeking atoms which they declare to be its natural state. The Americans are before us on the same road. The English colonies are treading on the heels of the Americans. The same temper seems to have infected, more or less, all the western nations; and we may expect that the type of character of which the halfeducated middle-class Anglo-Saxon is the best existing representative will enter before long into complete possession of this planet. I have every respect for my kindred in the New World

as well as the Old; but if this is the meaning of the progress, the praise of which is trumpeted out so loudly, the epic of human history will be wound up with the dreariest of farces." Such are the expressed views of one of the ripest students of the political and social progress of England, and other civilised nations of the world.

Practical theology, as well as practical polities, has also long been a favourite study with Mr. Fronde. Essays and lectures he has given to the world upon "Erasmus and Luther," "The Influence of the Reformation on the Scottish Character," "The Philosophy of Catholicism," "A Plea for the Free Discussion of Theological Difficulties," "The Book of Job," "The Lives of the Saints," "Criticism and the Gospel History," and many other cognate topics. One of his most important papers, however, upon theological questions, is his essay on the "Revival of Romanism." It is necessary to refer to this essay, in order to show Mr. Froude's latest attitude towards the Church of England. He desires to see the Church rise from her lethargy, and shake off her purely sacerdotal spirit, which appears to be gaining so much ground in her midst. He refers to the strides which the Church of Rome is making in this country, and attributes this, and the spread of Rationalism, largely to the uncertain utterance of so many Protestant clergymen. He demands that the latter should imitate their opponents, in the Romish Church, in the unity, assiduity, and sleeplessness of their efforts. With regard to the views of Mr. Darwin and others, and to the "progress" in certain directions which England is said to be making in this nineteenth century, Mr. Froude remarks:-"The steam-ship and the railway, the electric telegraph, and the infinite multitude of kindred machineries, may easily enough be evolutions of qualities, of which we perceive the germs in many creatures besides apes. If these are, indeed, our last and sublimest triumphs; if it is in the direction of these that the progress of the race is to continue, then, indeed, I can be content to look back with proper tenderness on my hairy ancestry. Instead of 'a little lower than the angels,' I can bear to look on myself as 'a little higher than the apes;' and 'Pickwick' shall be as beautiful as the 'Tempest,' and Herbert Spencer more profound than Aristotle, and the electric cable of greater value to mankind than the prophecies of Isaiah or the Republic of Plato." These passages, while necessary as indicating the position which Mr. Froude assumes towards the great social and political questions of the time, demonstrate also the courage, the fidelity, and the ability he displays in advancing and interpreting that position to others.

There are certain labours of Mr. Froude in a public capacity which demand some attention. It will be remembered that in 1874, and for some time preceding, there was a very unsettled state of feeling in England with regard to the turn which affairs had taken at the Cape of Good Hope. Into these disturbances there is no need for us to enter in detail; but it may be mentioned that after a great deal of difficulty the newly-discovered Diamond Fields were taken possession of and annexed to the English Crown. A Caffre insurrection occurred, and Mr. Froude, at the request of the Earl of Carnarvon, Secretary of State for the Colonies, left this country in August, 1874, to proceed to the Cape. His mission was to make inquiries respecting the insurrection, and to investigate the condition of the public feeling generally both in Cape Colony and the Orange Free State. Having accomplished his mission, Mr. Froude returned home in the following January; but he again went out to the Cape in May, 1875. A Conference of all the South African States was proposed for the purpose of effecting a settlement of the complications which had arisen, but although the other States were favourable to the idea, Cape Colony declined to entertain the proposal for a Conference, which accordingly fell through. The people, however, of Cape Colony were in favour of a Conference, though the Parliament was not. The

Parliament of Cape Colony, nevertheless, undertook to relieve the Home Government of the irksome charge of the Diamond Fields. Mr. Froude left the Cape with the public feeling somewhat pacificated, and returned to England in January, 1876. The literary result of his first visit has been made known in a very pleasant journal published in the "Short Studies upon Great Subjects" (Third Series). Mr. Froude represents the undercurrent of feeling in the Dutch Settlements as still very strong against the English, and that it is mere matter of speculation whether—and when—the proposed South African Confederation Scheme would be accepted and made available by the various States. It should be stated that in August, 1876, a conference of representatives from the Orange Free State and Cape Colony was held with the Imperial Government at the Colonial Office, Downing Street. Mr. Froude was invited to take part in the Conference, and he rendered very valuable service on the occasion. The result was that a better understanding was arrived at between the South African Colonies, and the Orange Free State agreed to modify its policy.

With regard to the Eastern Question, while not in every respect pro-Russian, Mr. Froude is decidedly anti-Turkish. It is not a little remarkable at the present day, to turn to an article written by the historian in the Westminster Review, so long ago as January, 1855, on the subject of "Austria in the Principalities." The reader of that article will note how many of Mr. Froude's opinions have become the commonly accepted views of many eminent statesmen of our time. Dealing with the Crimean war, and the position of Austria, Russia, and England, Mr. Froude observed: "To humble Russia, and reduce its ambition within such proportions as are compatible with the balance of power and the freedom of Europe, is no doubt the great But it would be dearly purchased by the aggrandisement of Austria, or by finally trusting to Austria to guarantee the independence of the south-east of Europe. independence can only be obtained by the establishment of the countries and the races which are now unfortunately so divided and intermingled, that to render them a compact State is a problem difficult to be solved. To make them over to absolute power, and to either an old or a new master, would merely adjourn the question. The Turkish sway in Europe cannot be eternal. Whatever, therefore, is done, let at least the seeds be sown over these countries self-sufficing to their existence, their tranquillity, and their government; Rouman, Serb, and Greek people these regions, and the great characteristic of each is not to tolerate the domination of the other. . . . A federation is impossible in these regions. But independent States must first be formed as the elements of the future federation. The two Rouman Principalities are well fitted to form or to furnish two great foundations, and Servia is already constituted as a third; but Austrian prejudice and tyranny will be even more opposed to such a scheme than Russian ambition. France, we fear, would be indifferent in the matter. All, therefore, depends upon English statesmen, and upon the force and determination with which they urge a free and liberal settlement; not because it is liberal, but because such alone can have permanence The whole of the article from which this extract is taken is remarkable for its prophetic political insight, and for the largeness and breadth of view with which it deals with the future of the Principalities.

In response to an invitation numerously signed, Mr. Froude consented to become a candidate for the Rectorship of the University of Glasgow, on the retirement of Earl Beaconsfield, upon the completion of his term of office in 1877. Sir Stafford Northcote, however, having been chosen by the Conservative party in the University as their candidate, and Mr. Gladstone also having been requested to come forward by a number of Liberals, Mr. Froude, who was simply

before the University as a literary and not a political candidate, retired from the contest. In a letter withdrawing his name, he said that he regarded Sir Stafford Northcote's candidature as a challenge to the University to express its opinion on the great question of the day. Such being the case, Mr. Froude explained that he could not be instrumental in diminishing, even by a single vote, the majority by which he trusted the University would signify its approval of Mr. Gladstone's conduct.

Mr. Froude was appointed editor of *Fraser's Magazine* in the year 1861, and continued to conduct that serial for thirteen years. Under his auspices the magazine speedily exhibited something of its pristine vigour and ability. The University of St. Andrews conferred the degree of LL.D. upon Mr. Froude, on the occasion of his election to the Lord Rectorship in 1869.

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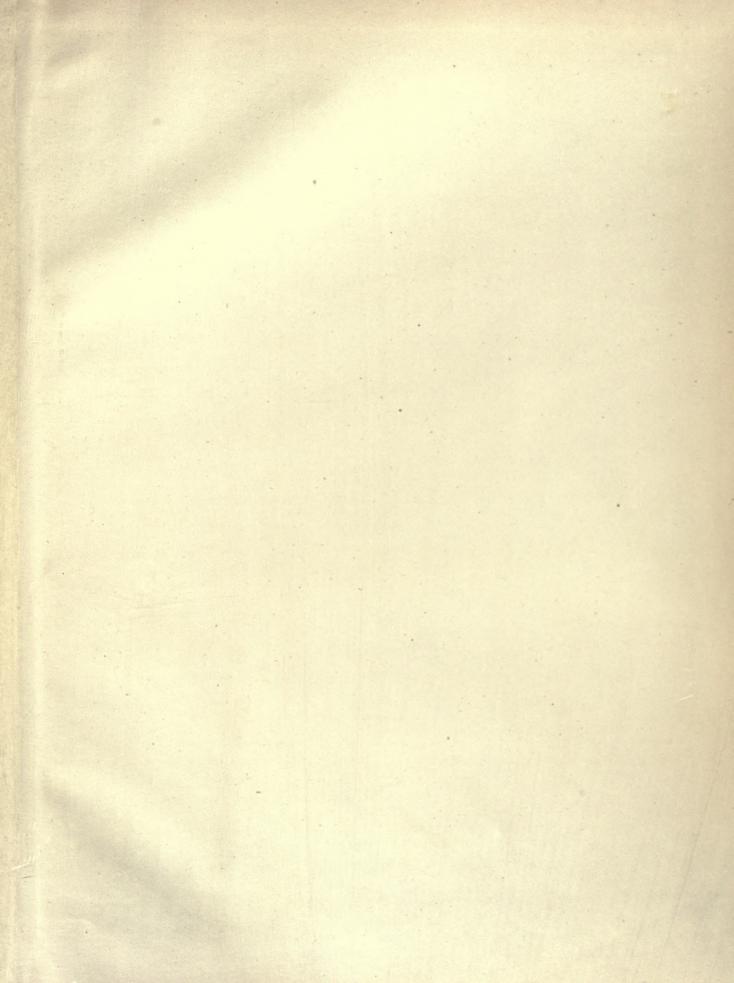
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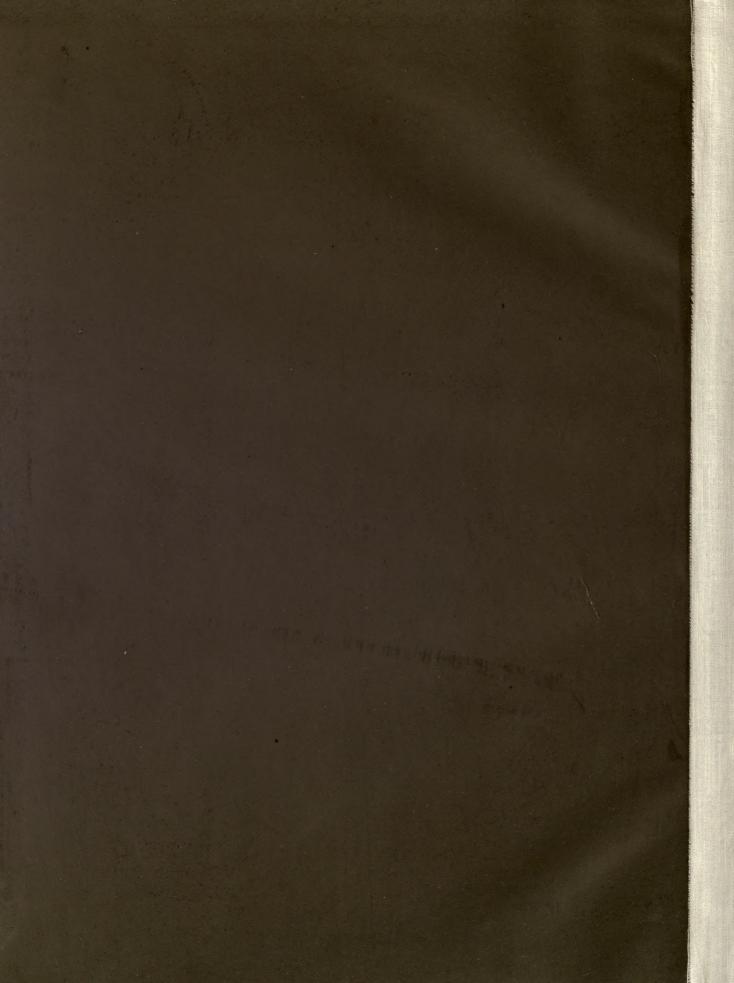
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